



# *Transitions*

## **CONTEXT MAPPING**

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for the EU Framework 5 study  
'Gender, Parenthood and the  
Changing European  
Workplace'

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Research Report #1

[Http://www.workliferesearch.org/transitions](http://www.workliferesearch.org/transitions)

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# *Transitions*

## CONTEXT MAPPING

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*Transitions* is a qualitative cross-national research project which aims to examine how young European adults negotiate motherhood and fatherhood and work-family boundaries in the context of labour market and workplace change, different national welfare state regimes and family and employer supports. The project is examining individual and household strategies and their consequences for well being at the individual, family and organisational levels. This is studied in the context of parallel organisational contexts and macro levels of public support in the 8 participating countries: France, Portugal, Sweden, Norway, the Netherlands, the UK, Bulgaria and Slovenia

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## **SUMMARY OF CONTEXT MAPPING REPORT**

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The aim of this report is to provide a broad outline of the principal economic, social and demographic characteristics of the eight countries (Bulgaria, France, The United Kingdom, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Slovenia and Sweden) which we have looked at in the course of our research. In our comparative study, we have placed our results in the context of their national perspectives, in order both to be able to interpret them correctly and to enable us to draw inferences from the observed differences and similarities between countries. It has not always been possible to obtain comparative data for the countries currently not in the EU-15 - Bulgaria, Slovenia and Norway, but relevant data has been included where possible.

The initial chapter looks at economic indicators of social inequality. Norway, followed by the Netherlands, Sweden, France and the United Kingdom, is, according to these statistics, by far the most wealthy country. Bulgaria is at the other end of the scale with a GNP per citizen nearly six times smaller than that of Norway. The Scandinavian countries are also noteworthy in having relatively low indicators of social inequality. The United Kingdom and Portugal, on the other hand, by the same measures, show the highest levels of social inequality. Concerning labour costs, Portugal, Slovenia and, in particular, Bulgaria show far lower rates than those which are the norm in the more northern countries. Rates of unemployment are extremely varied from one country to another - the highest rates are found in France and, in particular, in Bulgaria; lowest rates are those found in the Netherlands and in Portugal (using data from 2001). In considering a ranking of countries based on the involvement of women in politics, the Scandinavian countries are leading the way and occupying the first two places.

The second part of the report is devoted to a detailed description of childcare policies in each country and to an analysis of the different public schemes with regard to leave and absence from work following the birth of a child. Sweden,

Norway, France and Slovenia demonstrate especially positive responses in terms of the allowances given in this regard. The United Kingdom and The Netherlands, on the other hand, are distinguished by the less supportive political and social attitudes they demonstrate in policies that affect pre-school age children.

Alternative systems for child care are, on the other hand, developed to a much greater degree in France where child care is heavily subsidised in order to reduce the cost to working parents. One increasing similarity is due, however, in large measure to European legislation and is the length of leave that parents of both sexes are entitled to after a birth.

The same discrepancies and hierarchy between countries is apparent in the amount of state and social support given to families: the Scandinavian countries and France are particularly generous whilst Portuguese spending in this area is very limited. Whilst The Netherlands maintains an admirable stance with regard to social provision on an individual basis it is much less generous when it comes to families. The structure of payments made to families (in the form of tax, child and housing benefits) is very varied from one country to another and clearly illustrates the political landscape and aspirations of the different governments. In The United Kingdom for example the needs of low-income families are given priority, in France and Sweden it is the more comfortably off who benefit most from government initiatives.

The third chapter of the report looks at the relative statistical data and in particular at birth rates. Irrespective of the statistical indicator used, whether the 'total fertility rate' or 'completed fertility rate', France and Norway are the countries with the highest birth rates. At the other end of the scale, Bulgaria and Slovenia have recently shown a pronounced slide to low birth rates; fertility rates having collapsed since the 1980s. This is especially true of Bulgaria, where levels of unemployment rose considerably during that decade. In all the countries considered – although in Bulgaria to the least degree – the average age of women at first births has risen. This trend is shown most strongly in The Netherlands and Sweden. On the other hand, the proportion of women aged

between 40 and 44 who are giving birth has risen between the years 1998 and 2000 in all countries apart from Slovenia and Bulgaria where the percentage remains low (less than 4% as against 12% in Sweden). It is also noteworthy that an increasing number of women reach the end of their fertility period having had no children. This trend is relatively low in Bulgaria, Portugal and France and is most marked in The Netherlands and The United Kingdom.

As demographic and professional attitudes are inextricably linked, the next chapter looks at the characteristics of work (in particular duration of working time for mothers) and its impact on labour markets for males and females of reproductive age. In the eight countries, the levels of mothers' labour market activity have risen but the number of children, age of the youngest child and levels of education remain significant variables. Modes and conventions in the participation of young women in the labour market also differ greatly. Portugal and Slovenia are notable for the very high numbers of women in full time paid employment working long hours. In each country, the rates of employment of women between the ages of 25 and 49 has risen in line with investments in education. However, once again, Portugal is noticeably different to the other countries studied: Portuguese women, whatever their level of education, are the most likely group of women to be employed of any group in the study.

Apart from in Portugal and Slovenia, young women with children often work on a part-time basis. In Sweden and in France, women typically work "long part time hours" compared to the "short part time hours" of women in the Netherlands or The United Kingdom. In terms of the number of hours spent at work, the differences between the sexes are apparent whichever country we considered but it is in the Netherlands and The United Kingdom that these differences are most marked. In the UK, fathers spend, on average, almost 47 hours each week at their jobs, in France the average is 41 hours.

Furthermore, the fact of having such a majority of mothers working part time in these two countries (the Netherlands and The United Kingdom) means that the

model of work sharing between couples with children is most likely to be that of the man working full time and the woman working part time; a model usually referred to as the 'modified male breadwinner'. The other countries show contrasting models in terms of employment of mothers, especially for highly educated women. Even amongst well qualified women, having children means that they are much more likely to be working part time, apart from in Portugal. As a consequence, the preferences of couples with regard to paid work differ from country to country. This raises a number of questions with regard to the widely differing perceptions of the respective responsibilities of each parent in each country. In the Netherlands, couples overwhelmingly choose (nearly 70%) for the model of men working full time and women working part time, whereas in Portugal in nearly 80% of couples both the man and the woman say they want to work full time even where they have a child.

Taking into account the importance of the level of education as a differentiating factor in the demographic and professional lives of women, the next chapter of the report looks at statistics to point up the rise in the number of women acquiring academic and professional qualifications. Amongst women between the ages of 25 and 34 for example in Portugal, the Scandinavian countries, France and the UK, women now outnumber men in terms of those who continue into higher education. Amongst those of both sexes aged between 15 and 24, the number remaining at school has risen markedly. In Portugal the number remains lower, in comparison with the other EU countries and Norway.

The final chapter of the report focuses on the system of dominant values and norms in relation to the respective obligations of parents and the needs of children. Concerning the theoretical preferences for balancing work and home life, a majority of those aged between 25 and 39 and living in France, The United Kingdom, Slovenia and Portugal said they would prefer "to have a full time job and more than one child"; whereas the same aged group living in Sweden and the Netherlands replied "a part time job and more than one child". However, part-time work has different meanings depending on the social realities and work



legislation existing in each country.

Finally, it is evident that a study such as this would make reference to the social and legal realities existing in each country. In conclusion, a table has been devised to suggest a typology of each country based on the degree of involvement of mothers with young children in a paid working life and to set this indicator against the most significant models of combining paid work and caring for children.



## INTRODUCTION

---

The aim of this report is to provide the *Transitions* project with a broad overview of economic, social and demographic patterns of our eight countries. We are seeking to identify cross-national differences and similarities in employment patterns of men and women (aged 25-39 years), focusing on transitions to social independence. The major purpose is to gain better understanding of the comparative results emanating from the case studies by taking into account the broader economic, social and institutional context men and women live in. For instance, the ways they negotiate transitions at different stages of their life cycle and their room for manoeuvre are very dependent on the level and kind of support they receive from the State or other institutions. The economic environment is also likely to play a major role in influencing trade-offs and compromises made by young people in their professional life, in particular the time they expend (or are obliged) to devote to their job.

We know that cross-national comparisons can only be made with considerable caution. When making a comparative analysis of the results drawn from the case studies conducted in our countries (except France), it is important to set the economic, social and cultural background in each country. To explore the complex bundle of factors explaining variations across countries, it is important to underline the various institutional systems and their cultural background. For instance, to better investigate how dual-earner couples can combine their job and their family obligations or differences in mothers' employment patterns, it is necessary to take account of public support (child care provision, in particular) and welfare schemes that they are provided with when they have young children. Large-scale statistical and comparable data provides a useful background for this.

Moreover, demographic changes throughout Europe have led to a changing social situation requiring new social policies. The increasing labour force participation of women, particularly of women in the childbearing years, has been accompanied by increasing needs for childcare, flexible working arrangements and greater demands for equality in the workplace. Therefore, we also address the issues of gender equality and gender discriminations: one of the tables and figures presented in this report yield insights about how young women fare in politics, in the educational system and in the labour market.

The guiding principle of our report is the idea that there is an interactive relationship between the process of family formation (or dissolution), female and male employment patterns, opportunities at work and access to welfare. Three key questions underpin the report:

- What are the dynamics of family formation taking into account that the last decade stands out as a time of technological, economic and social change, broad trends that made their mark on the work-family interface?
- Are women's and men's life-course patterns converging across national contexts (eight countries)?
- Which trade-offs and compromises do young people make at different stages of their life-course as far their professional trajectories and career commitments are concerned?

From this perspective, several reasons therefore justified our choice of countries. First, in each of these countries, alongside the ever increasing labour force participation of mothers with young children, the policy objective of reconciliation of employment and family life has gradually moved onto the political agenda. Despite considerable variations in the political impact of the issue, and also in the public provision of services provided to families, a range of measures has been progressively implemented to reduce the conflicts between paid work and family



life. Second, each has different welfare regimes (Esping-Andersen, 1990<sup>1</sup>; Pierson, 2001<sup>2</sup>) and this has strong implications for how far these different countries place the onus for reconciling employment and family life on public policy and how much on individuals, families and employers. France and Netherlands are part of the cluster of countries whose welfare regimes are qualified 'conservative', (sometimes termed 'Christian democratic' or 'Bismarckian'). They include the following features: high levels of spending, high levels of payroll tax financing and explicit or implicit family policies. However, France differs from the other conservative welfare states when social care is taken into account. The UK is classified in the liberal cluster and Sweden and Norway in the social democratic one (Pierson, 2001). They devote different proportions of their social protection system to family policy. Sweden, Norway and France as well as Bulgaria and Slovenia have a well-established and long-standing early childhood system, while Portugal, Netherlands and the UK lag behind. On the other hand, there are a lot of commonalities between these countries. All are currently grappling with similar issues, due to the convergence of economic and social conditions in the community, and their welfare states are undergoing significant changes.

Moreover, decision-makers have to tackle a number of issues (reform of pension systems, rise in unemployment, fighting poverty and social exclusion, public deficits, etc.), and are confronted with dilemmas: set against the background of cost containment and "recalibration of welfare states" (Pierson, 2001), they have to make trade-offs and find compromises. In this context, room for manoeuvre may be felt to be narrow and priorities need to be made. However, it is notable that in Norway, Sweden and France, a higher priority is given to public provision of childcare facilities and related schemes aimed at helping working parents (see Chapter Two). In Bulgaria and Slovenia, after the political upheaval and economic turmoil of the nineties, policy makers have had to cope with a dramatic increase in unemployment following moves away from a state controlled and centrally planned welfare system, associated with a decrease in

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<sup>1</sup> Esping-Andersen, G. (1990) *The Three Worlds of Welfare Capitalism*. Cambridge: Polity Press.

<sup>2</sup> Pierson, P. (ed.), 2001, *The New Politics of the Welfare State*, Oxford, Oxford University Press.

fertility rates (which had already begun in the 1980s in Slovenia)<sup>3</sup>. However, in many aspects of their social policy the two countries are following different paths of 'post-socialist' reforms, with Slovenia moving towards re-institutionalising welfare regimes, and Bulgaria moving towards de-institutionalising them<sup>4</sup>.

In the first chapter, we present a broad overview of the economic and social context. Some cross-national comparative data about the participation of women in politics and the gender-related development index allow us to observe that in Sweden and Norway, relatively low social inequalities go in tandem with a gender egalitarian orientation. Then we move to family benefits and public support for working parents: this foray into the fiscal system and family allowances sheds some light on those financial benefits directly affecting families. As childcare is of key importance in the reconciliation of work and family life of working parents with young children, it is a main focus of this chapter. Chapter Three is devoted to demographic patterns, family formation and fertility rates. Despite some convergence in this field, strong differences between countries still persist. In Chapter Four, we address the issues related to working time regimes and employment patterns, focusing in particular on parents: figures show, in particular, that equality between the sexes in the family-work nexus is far from being achieved, even in Sweden. Chapter Five is devoted to education attainment levels, taking into account that level of education is a strong factor influencing labour force participation rates of women and of their employment behaviour. Chapter Six puts the emphasis on norms and values and illustrates that life preference sets are deeply rooted in our cultures. We conclude with an attempt to summarize mothers' employment patterns and a typology of the different ways in which parents combine paid work and unpaid work is presented.

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<sup>3</sup> Comparable data with other countries was unfortunately not always available.

<sup>4</sup> Wallace, Claire (Ed.) 2002 Critical Literature Review and Discourses about Flexibility. Research Report #1, Households, Work and Flexibility Project, [www.ihs.at](http://www.ihs.at).

Finally and most importantly, one of the aims of the *Transitions* project is to highlight those factors which are associated with work-life integration and well-being, so that workplace policies as well as social policies at the more macro level may be further developed in order to enhance opportunities for women and men to optimally combine their multiple roles of worker, parent and individual.





## **CHAPTER ONE** Setting the economic and social context

---



## **1.1 GDP per capita and inequality of income distribution**

Norway is by far the wealthiest country: GDP per capita is twice that of Slovenia (Table 1a). This goes hand in hand in Norway with low inequality of income distribution and a top position as far as Human Development Index (HDI) is concerned. This contrasts with the situation in Portugal and the UK where social and economic inequalities are strong and much higher than in the former socialist countries. Measures of inequality of income distribution (income quintile share ratio) and Gini index presented in Table 1a show that the Scandinavian countries do much better as far as transfers systems (through direct and indirect tax and social levies) and fight against social inequalities are concerned than the other countries. It is also noticeable that Portugal lags far behind the other European member countries when HDI is taken into account. It is therefore not surprising that, in Portugal, 66% of individuals consider themselves "poor" (subjective poverty indicator) in 2001 compared with 18% in the Netherlands, 20% in Sweden, 30% in France and 27% in the UK (Source: Eurobarometer 56.1, Poverty and Social Devaluation, 2001).

Bulgaria is the "poorest" country but social divisions are less marked than in Portugal. At the same time, Statutory Minimum Wage is very low in Bulgaria which is correlated with very low hourly costs of labour in industry (Table 1b).

## **1.2 Women in Politics: Sweden and Norway at the forefront**

Women fare much better in the Scandinavian countries than in the other countries as far as their participation in politics is concerned (Table 1c), in part because the gender equality issue has been addressed much more seriously than elsewhere due to a strong women's movement and the important role played by women in trade unions. The Netherlands occupies an intermediate position. France has the lowest percentage of women in national Parliament (however, since the Parity law, this percentage has slightly increased, reaching in 2003, around 13%). When emphasis is put on a gender-related development index, we can observe that the classification of the countries goes hand in hand with the other figures presented on Table 1c.

## **1.3 Unemployment rates**

At the end of the eighties, in our countries labour markets had substantially recovered from the turmoil which all the countries except Norway experienced during the early 1980s. Then a period of renewed crisis extended for some countries (Sweden, Portugal, UK and France, in particular) into the mid years of the 1990s. Unemployment was a relatively new phenomenon in Slovenia and Bulgaria in the 1990s as the communist regimes had not recognised it officially in the previous decades.

This broad pattern can be seen in the unemployment rates (Figure 1a) in the different periods. In Sweden, in particular, unemployment rose sharply from the

beginning of the decade to 1993 (1.7% to 9.1%). Unemployment rates remained at a high level in France, Sweden and Portugal through to 1996. Finally, unemployment fell between 1996 and 2001 in all countries. There was particularly marked decline in Sweden. France, however, still stands out as having the highest unemployment rate (more than 9%) after Bulgaria. By 2001, it reached 19.9% in Bulgaria and only 5.7% in Slovenia, a country which fares much better from an economic point of view than Bulgaria.

We wish to underline that unemployment is a very important factor to take into account when analyzing fertility rates and family building. Méron and Widmer (2002)<sup>5</sup> have highlighted the trade-offs made by young couples in this area: they have demonstrated that unemployment, more than other activity status, prompts childless young women in union to delay having children. Their results confirm that economic fluctuations have an especially important impact on the early working life of the young adults, at the very time when they may be starting a family.

A sharp and sudden rise in unemployment rates (as in Sweden during the nineties or like in Slovenia and Bulgaria since the political change) can have a strong impact on the decision-making process of couples when they consider having a child. However, outcomes might only be a change in the timing of births which has a strong impact on "Total fertility rates" (TFR, see Chapter 3) but not on "Completed fertility rates" if women (or couples) have only decided to postpone a previously planned birth.

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<sup>5</sup> Méron, M., Widmer, I. 2002, Les femmes au chômage retardent l'arrivée du premier enfant, *Population*, n°2 : 327-356.

**TABLE 1a : GDP per capita, inequality of income distribution and HDI**

|             | <b>GDP per capita in PPS* (2001)</b> | <b>GDP per capita in US dollars*** (2002)</b> | <b>Inequality of income distribution (income quintile share ratio)**** (1999)</b> | <b>Gini Index (1)*****</b> | <b>Human Development Index Rank (2000)***** *</b> |
|-------------|--------------------------------------|---|---|----------------------------|---|
| Bulgaria    | 24.5                                 |   | 3.6   | 26.4 (1997)                | 60  |
| France      | 102.8                                | 26,151  | 4.4   | 32.7 (1995)                | 12  |
| Netherlands | 114.8                                | 27,274  | 3.7   | 32.6 (1994)                | 8   |
| Norway      | 143.2                                | 36,474<br>*****<br>(2002 figure)              | 3.3   | 25.8 (1995)                | 1   |
| Portugal    | 69.1                                 | 17,808  | 6.4   | 35.6 (1995)                | 28  |
| Slovenia    | 72.4                                 |   | 3.2   | 28.4 (1998)                | 29 (1998)   |
| Sweden      | 102.3                                | 25,315  | 3.2   | 25.0 (1992)                | 2   |
| UK          | 101.5**                              | 25,672  | 5.2   | 36.8 (1995)                | 13  |

\* Source : Eurostat (2001)

\*\* Forecast

\*\*\* Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators 2003

\*\*\*\* The ratio of total income received by the 20% of the population with the highest income (top quintile) to that received by the 20% of the population with the lowest income (lowest quintile). Income must be understood as equivalised disposable income. Source : Eurostat, 2003.

\*\*\*\*\* Source: UN Development Programme, Human Development Report, 2002.

\*\*\*\*\*Source : OECD Main Economic Indicators (2002)

(1) The Gini Index measures inequality over the entire distribution of income or consumption. A value of 0 represents perfect equality and a value of 100 perfect inequality.

**TABLE 1b : Statutory minimum wage, hourly costs of labour and at risk of poverty rate**

|             | <b>Statutory Minimum Wage<br/>(February 1, 2002) in Euros</b> | <b>At Risk of Poverty Rate<br/>(25-49 years of age) (60% of median equivalised income*</b> | <b>Hourly costs of labour in industry (in Euros)<br/>(2000)**</b> |
|-------------|---|--|---|
| Bulgaria    | 56.2  | -  | 1.4   |
| France      | 1,126   | 13   | 17.0  |
| Netherlands | 1,207   | 10   | 20.7  |
| Norway      | -   | -  | -   |
| Portugal    | 406   | 15   | 5.2   |
| Slovenia    | -   | -  | 8.3   |
| Sweden      | -   | 10   | 21.8  |
| UK          | 1,124   | 14   | 17.8  |

\* Source: Eurostat, The Social Situation in the EU, 2002, p.125

\*\* Source : World Bank, 2001

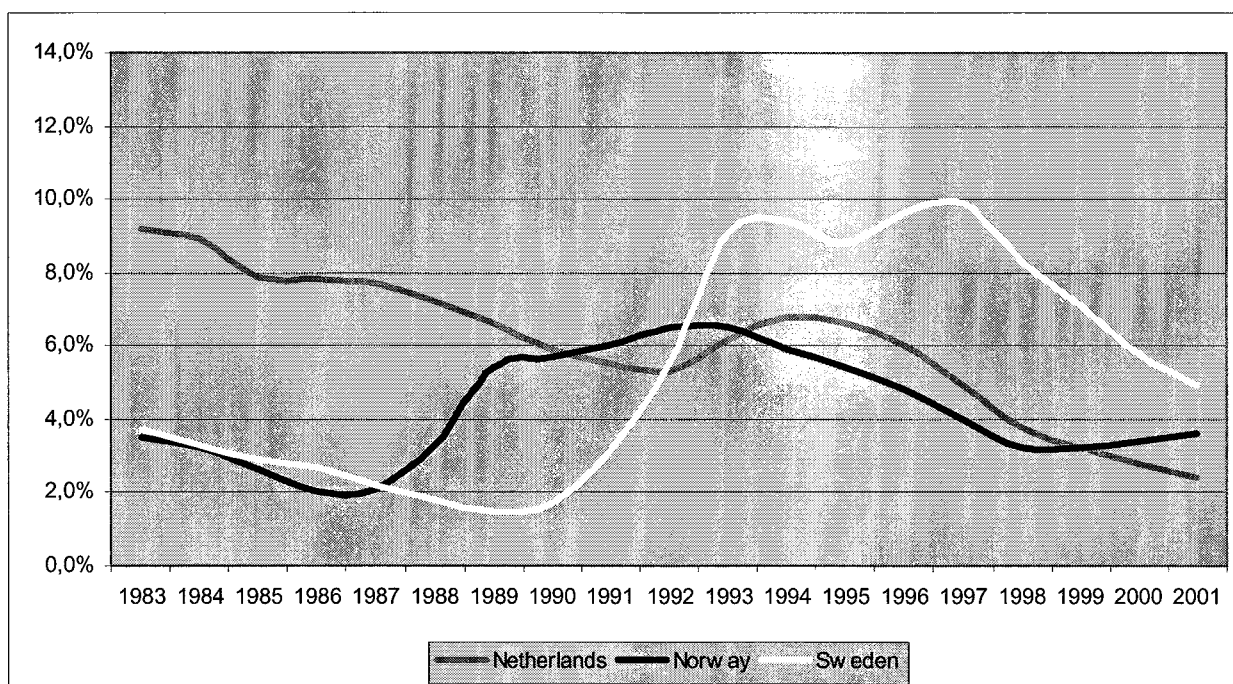
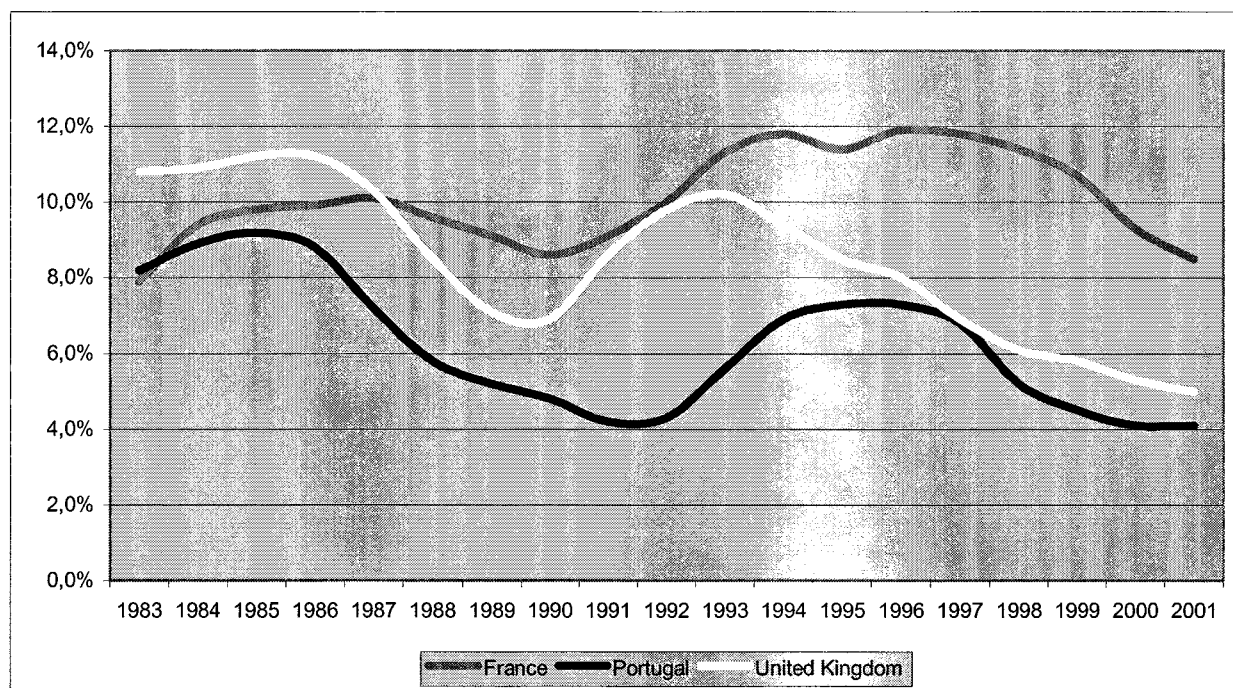


**TABLE 1c : Women in politics and gender-related development index**

|             | <b>% of women<br/>in national<br/>Parliaments<br/>(2000)</b> | <b>% of women<br/>in national<br/>Governments<br/>(2000)</b> | <b>Gender-<br/>related<br/>development<br/>index<br/>(2000)</b> |
|-------------|--|--|---|
| Bulgaria    | 10.8   | 18.8   | 0.778   |
| France      | 8.7  | 30.3   | 0.926   |
| Netherlands | 33.3   | 31.0   | 0.930   |
| Norway      | 41.2   | 42   | 0.941   |
| Portugal    | 19.6   | 11.7   | 0.876   |
| Slovenia    | 12.2   | 18.7   | 0.877   |
| Sweden      | 45.0   | 50.0   | 0.936   |
| UK          | 17.1   | 35.3   | 0.925   |

Source : Eurostat, 2003 (Gender pay gap in unadjusted form)

**FIGURE 1a: Standardised unemployment rates\*. evolution 1983-2001**



\*This section contains Standardised Unemployment Rates which are more comparable between countries than the unemployment rates published in national sources.

Source: OECD, Perspectives économiques, n° 72, 2002

The standardised rate gives the number of unemployed persons as a percentage of the civilian labour force. The definition of unemployment conforms to the definition adopted by the 13<sup>th</sup> Conference of Labour Statisticians, which are generally referred to as the ILO Guidelines.

According to the ILO Guidelines, the labour force to be used to calculate the unemployment rate is the total labour force which consists of civilian employees, the self-employed, unpaid family workers, professional and conscripted members of the armed force, and the unemployed. The use of survey data covering only private households implies a departure from this definition in that individuals living in institutions are excluded from estimates. For example, members of the armed forces living in barracks are excluded.

**TABLE 1d : Bulgaria - GDP and employment rates: evolution 1990 to 2000**

|                             | 1990  | 1991  | 1992 | 1993 | 1994 | 1995 | 1996  | 1997 | 1998 | 1999 | 2000 |
|-----------------------------|-------|-------|------|------|------|------|-------|------|------|------|------|
| Nominal GDP (\$BN)          | 19.2  | 7.5   | 8.6  | 10.8 | 9.7  | 13.1 | 9.9   | 10.1 | 12.2 | 12.4 | 12.1 |
| GDP per capita (\$)         | 4487  | 4114  | 4098 | 4195 | 5010 | 5390 | 4990  | 4790 | 4980 | 5210 | 5610 |
|                             |       |       |      |      |      |      |       |      |      |      |      |
| GDP (% change)              | -9.1  | -11.7 | -7.3 | -1.5 | 1.8  | 2.9  | -10.1 | -7.0 | 3.5  | 2.4  | 5.8  |
| Employment rates (1990=100) | 100.0 | 87.0  | 79.9 | 79.6 | 79.1 | 80.1 | 80.2  | 77.1 | 77.0 | 75.4 | 71.6 |

**Source:** Business Central Europe, October 2001, [www.econ.bg](http://www.econ.bg); NSI, 2000c:5.

## **CHAPTER TWO** Family policies, family allowances and public support for working parents

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## **2.1 Childcare policies and childcare arrangements**

Source: Eurostat, DG V of the European Commission, and data supplied and updated (May-September 2003) by *Transitions* partner



### 2.1.1 Inventory of main care and early education provision (prior to compulsory education)

Early childhood education and care (ECEC) is defined as any arrangement for children outside compulsory school involving elements of physical care, socialisation and/or education.

These arrangements include day care centres, pre-school, before- and after-school facilities, family-type day care (both regulated and unregulated), in both the private and public sector, regardless of the administrative auspices (education, health, social welfare or a combination of these), of the age group served (infants and toddlers; pre-school children; compulsory school-aged children), of where care and/or education takes place (pre-primary school; centre; home; in-own-home) or of the intensity of care and/or education (full-time, part-time).

**TABLE 2a : Inventory of main care and early education provision**

| <b>Country</b> | <b>Name of Provision</b> | <b>Setting</b> | <b>Ages served</b> | <b>Opening Hours</b>           | <b>National Administrative auspices</b> |
|----------------|--------------------------|----------------|--------------------|--------------------------------|---|
| <b>BG</b>      | Creches                  | Centre         | 8-36 months        | Full day (7 to 19), all year   | Education and local authorities         |
|                | Kindergarten             | Centre         | 3-6 years          | Full day, all year             | Education and local authorities         |
|                | Pre-school               | Centre         | 6 yrs              | Half a day, nine months a year | Education                               |
|                | Leisure-time centre      | Centre         | 8-14 yrs           | Part-time, all year            | Education                               |

| <b>Country</b> | <b><i>Name of provision</i></b>     | <b>Setting</b> | <b>Ages served</b> | <b>Opening hours</b>   | <b>National administrative auspices</b> |
|----------------|-------------------------------------|----------------|--------------------|--|---|
| <b>F</b>       | Crèches collectives                 | Centre         | 0-36 months        | Full-day, all-year   | Welfare, local authorities              |
|                | Crèches parentales                  | Centre         | 0-36 months        | Full-day, all-year   | Welfare                                 |
|                | Crèches familiales                  | Home           | 0-36 months        |  | Welfare                                 |
|                | Halte-garderie                      | Centre         | 0-6                | Variable (according to local needs)  | Welfare                                 |
|                | Jardin d'enfants                    | Centre         | 2-6                | Full-day, all-year   | Education                               |
|                | Ecole maternelle                    | School         | 2-6                | 08.30 to 16.30, open on Saturday morning, closed on Wednesday, term time           | Education                               |
|                | Garderie périscolaire               | Centre         | 2-6                | Outside school hours (7.30 to 08.30 and 16.00 to 18.30), not during school holiday | Welfare/Education                       |
|                | Centres de Loisirs sans Hébergement | Centre         | Under/over 6 years | Outside school hours, on Wednesday and school holiday. From 8.00 to 18/19.00       | Welfare/Education                       |
|                | Lieu Passerelle                     | Centre         | 2-3                |  | Education                               |

| Country   | Name of provision  | Setting | Ages served | Opening hours  | National administrative auspices |
|-----------|--|---------|-------------|--|----------------------------------|
| <b>NL</b> | Day care centres   | Centre  | 0-4         | Full-day, all year   | Social Affairs and Employment    |
|           | Pre-school playgroups  | Centre  | 2 and 3     | Half-day   | Welfare                          |
|           | Outside school care, for children between 4 up until 12 years old; | Centre  | 4-12        | Outside school hours (15:00-18:00) all year or during term time. | Social Affairs and Employment    |
|           | Family day care  | Home    | 0-12        | Full-day or before/after school                                  | Social Affairs and Employment    |

| Country  | Name of provision                   | Setting | Ages served | Opening hours                             | National administrative auspices        |
|----------|-------------------------------------|---------|-------------|---|---|
| <b>N</b> | Day-care centre<br><i>Barnehage</i> | Centre  | 1-5 yrs     | Full-day                                  | Ministry of Children and Family Affairs |
|          | Family day care                     | Home    | 1-3 yrs     | Full-day                                  | Ministry of Children and Family Affairs |
|          | School leisure time arrangements    | School  | 6-9 years   | Before and after school during term time. | Ministry of Education                   |

| <b>Country</b>  | <b><i>Name of provision</i></b>    | <b>Setting</b> | <b>Ages served</b>  | <b>Opening hours</b>                                  | <b>National administrative auspices</b> |
|-----------------|------------------------------------|----------------|---------------------|---|---|
| <b><i>P</i></b> | Nannies (AMA)                      | Home           | 3m to 3yrs          | Full-time, all-year                                   | Welfare                                 |
|                 | Crèches                            | Centre         | 3m to 3yrs          | Between 4 and 11 hours a day, 5 days a week, all-year | Welfare                                 |
|                 | Jardim de infância                 | School         | 3-5                 | 5-6 hours a day, during term time                     | Education                               |
|                 | Socio-educational activities (ATL) | Centre         | 3-5 and school-aged | Outside pre-school hours                              | Education                               |
|                 | Community and cultural activities  | Centre         | 3-5                 |   | Education                               |
|                 | Itinerant child education          | Centre         | 3-5                 | Part-time   | Education                               |

| Country     | Name of provision      | Setting | Ages served | Opening hours   | National administrative auspices |
|-------------|------------------------|---------|-------------|---|----------------------------------|
| <b>SLOV</b> | Child care centres     | Centre  | 1 - 6       | Minimum 9 hours a day, typically 9:00-16:00hrs<br><br>In cities: 07.00 to 19.00 hrs<br><br>All year | Local Education Authorities      |
|             | Family day care        | Home    | 1 - 6       | 9 hours a day all year  |                                  |
|             | Pre-school Play groups | Centre  | 2 - 10      | Irregular   | Local Education Authorities      |

| Country   | Name of provision   | Setting | Ages served | Opening hours        | National administrative auspices |
|-----------|---|---------|-------------|----------------------|----------------------------------|
| <b>Sw</b> | Pre-schools ( <i>förskola</i> )                                 | Centre  | 1-6         | Full-time, all year  | Education                        |
|           | Family day care ( <i>familjedaghem</i> )                        | Home    | 1-6         | Full-time, all year  |                                  |
|           | Open pre-schools ( <i>öppen förskola</i> )                      | Centre  | 1-6         | Part-time            | Education<br>Welfare             |
|           | Pre-school ( <i>Förskoleklass</i> )                             | School  | 6           | Part-time, term-time | Education                        |
|           | Leisure-time centres ( <i>fritidshem</i> )                      | Centre  | 6-12        | Full-time, all year  | Education                        |
|           | Open leisure-time activities ( <i>öppen fritidsverksamhet</i> ) | Centre  | 10-12       | Full-time, all year  | Education                        |
|           |   |         |             |                      |                                  |

| <b>Country</b> | <b>Name of Provision</b> | <b>Setting</b> | <b>Ages served</b> | <b>Opening Hours</b>  | <b>National Administrative auspices</b> |
|----------------|--------------------------|----------------|--------------------|---|---|
| <b>UK</b>      | Nursery                  | Centre         | Under 5            | Open all-day , all-year except during holiday. Part time sessions available                   | <b>Welfare</b>                          |
|                | Nursery class            | School         | 3-4                | 9.00 to 15.00, part-time places available (session of 2½ hours), closed during school holiday | Education                               |
|                | Nursery school           | School         | Under 5            | 9.00 to 15.00, part-time places available (session of 2½ hours), closed during school holiday | Education                               |
|                | Childminder              | Home           | Under 8            | Generally from 8.00 to 18.00, flexible hours  | Welfare                                 |
|                | Pre-school/Playgroups    | Centre         | 2-5                | Sessions of 3 hours, during term time.  | Education                               |
|                | Breakfast clubs          | Centre         | Generally 5-11     | In the morning, before school   | Welfare                                 |
|                | After school clubs       | Centre         | Generally 5-11     | In the afternoon, from 15.30 to 18.00   | Welfare                                 |
|                |                          |                |                    |   |   |

| <b>Country</b> | <b>Name of Provision</b> | <b>Setting</b> | <b>Ages served</b> | <b>Opening Hours</b>                            | <b>National Administrative auspices</b> |
|----------------|--------------------------|----------------|--------------------|---|---|
| <b>UK</b>      | Family centres           | Centre         | Under 5            | All-year except public holiday                  | Welfare                                 |
|                | Holiday play-schemes     | Centre         | Generally 5-11     | Open during school holiday, from 08.30 to 18.00 | Welfare                                 |
|                | Special school           | Centre         | 3-18               | 9.00 to 15.00, 39 weeks in the year             | Education                               |
|                | General hospital schools | Hospital       | All year           | Flexible  | Education                               |
|                | Non maintained schools   | Centre         |                    |   | Education                               |
|                |                          |                |                    |   |   |

## **2.2 Childcare policies : recent developments**



### 2.2.1 Bulgaria

During the communist regime the area of crèches and kindergartens was well developed, although the quality of services was not very high. After 1989 the number of places in crèches and kindergartens declined but not so drastically as in other countries in the region. At present kindergartens are subsidised by the state (Ministry of Education), local authorities and own income via renting, pedagogical services, companies, sponsorship. However, the parents' contribution is growing. Up until 1993 the fee charged to parents covered 10% of the expenses for one child. Then a higher fee was introduced, which was charged independently of family income, covering most of the expenses. In 1995 reduced fees were introduced for some categories, particularly single parents. In 1997 the fee was made more flexible, as a percentage of the minimum wage, and dependant on the type of services, type of settlement, the number of the children in the family, etc. In 2003 there was a significant rise in the fee which caused public protests. Keremidchieva (1998: 97) argues that the incidence of taking care of the children by grandparents has been constantly growing in the 1990s. While kindergartens are still a preferred option for raising and educating children by mothers, grandmothers' care is the cheaper and often the only available option.

In 1996-97, at 3 years of age, 52% of children were in education-oriented pre-primary institutions, 63%, at the age of 4, 70%, at the age of 5 and 81%, at the age of 6 (Source: *Key data on education in Europe, 1999-2000*:, p. 47). Kindergartens provide half-day and full-day care. The typical public kindergarten is open from 8am to 6pm. Admission age in pre-primary education is 3.

### 2.2.2 France

Since the early 1980s, the number of childcare places in crèches has increased regularly - by on average 6,400 places per year between 1981 and 1996 - to reach a total of 201,900 (132,200 in collective crèches<sup>6</sup> and 61,000 in crèches familiales<sup>7</sup>) in 2002. The *Caisse Nationale des Allocations Familiales* (CNAF- National Family Allowance Fund, the Family branch of the Social Security Department<sup>8</sup>), through the 'Caisses d'Allocations Familiales' (CAF, Family Allowance Funds) participates in the development and running costs of crèches (through the "*contrats-enfance*" which are designed both to help and to encourage communities to construct and to bear some of the running costs of

<sup>6</sup> *Crèches collectives*: publically subsidised day care centres where children under 3 years old are cared for by trained staff. They are supervised by "Protection Maternelle et Infantile", a statutory service responsible for the health care of children under six years old, and with supervisory responsibility for all public and private child care provisions.

<sup>7</sup> *Crèches familiales*: The number of these has been growing since 1971 - and at a faster rate than the collective crèches, as they cost less. These services organize and monitor child care by registered childminders, who are paid by the local authority and monitored by qualified state infant care personnel.

<sup>8</sup> « Régime général », the most important scheme of Social Security Department, covers two-thirds of the workforce (everyone employed in the private sector). It is divided into three "branches", 1) health and sickness insurance which covers risks such as sickness, maternity, invalidity, death, industrial injury and occupational diseases 2) pensions which covers the risk of old age and 3) family which covers the "risk of having children". However, whatever the regime, all family benefits fall under the responsibility of the *Régime general*.

these facilities). However, since 1994 the increase in funds allocated by the CNAF towards crèches has been modest when compared with the much higher funding allocated to childcare carried out by individuals (childminders or nannies at home) or to the *Allocation Parentale d'Education* (APE, child rearing benefit) (see table below).

Recently, against the background of a growing demand for childcare arrangements and under the pressure of the women's movement and some family associations, the Ministry of Family Affairs decided to substantially increase the number of places in crèches: by 2000 and once again by 2001, 228 million Euros had been devoted to public childcare facilities (crèches, halte-garderies, etc...). 40,000 places are due to be created over the next three years.

However, there is still a dramatic shortfall in places in crèches (Tables below): only 11% of children aged under three are cared for in crèches (compared with 4% in 1982).

France is also strongly committed to the almost universal enrolment of children under the age of six<sup>9</sup> in '*écoles maternelles*' (nursery schools), which are free and run by the Ministry of National Education. Open 35 hours per week, schools are routinely closed on Wednesdays, but are supplemented by a half-day Saturday session. All of these schools have canteen facilities (fees are income-related). Almost 98% of children aged three already attend '*écoles maternelles*'. This service is highly suitable for mothers who are employed during the opening hours of these schools (from 8.00a.m. to 5.00p.m).

However, since 1994, a move towards individualised child care arrangements has taken place (Leprince, 2003, Fagnani, 2000, Fagnani, Letablier, 2003): for instance, the number of recipients of AFEAMA has increased regularly since 1994, reaching 598,000 by December 2001, compared to 219,000 in 1993. As a result of the dramatic shortage of places in *crèches* and also because it is more flexible, this child-care arrangement (the child being cared for outside his or her home by a registered childminder) has become the most frequently used by dual-earner (and lone parent) families, with at least one child under three, who opt for 'formal childcare' (Tables below).

If AGED and AFEAMA facilitate middle-class and higher-waged women's access to paid work by helping families to meet the costs of child-care, they have the effect - particularly AGED - of being anti-redistributory measures, in contrast to public crèches.

As far as the proportion of children in public day care is concerned, France is now levelling with the Nordic countries.

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<sup>9</sup> In France, compulsory school attendance begins at the age of six.

### Childcare arrangements for children aged under 3 (in %)

|  |     |
|--|-----|
| CRECHES  | 11  |
| REGISTERED CHILDMINDER   | 16  |
| Nanny at home (with childcare allowance)                                     | 2   |
| Mother or father staying at home and provided with the Child-Rearing Benefit | 24  |
| Nursery school and/or relatives  | 23  |
| Other*   | 26  |
| TOTAL (2,270,000 children)   | 100 |

\* including Halte-garderies which welcome children occasionally or for a few hours each day.

Source : CNAF- DREES, 2003

**Subsidized childcare arrangements for children aged under 3 living  
with dual-earner parents: breakdown according to the childcare  
arrangement**

| <b>PUBLIC FACILITIES</b>                                    |      |
|---|------|
| Creches   | 15%  |
| Nursery School*   | 16%  |
| <b>INDIVIDUAL CHILD CARE ARRANGEMENT</b>                    |      |
| Registered Childminder**                                    | 29%  |
| Mother Or Father Provided With The<br>Child-Rearing Benefit | 38%  |
| Nanny At Home (With Childcare<br>Allowance)                 | 2%   |
| TOTAL (N=1,590,000)   | 100% |

\* Some children attending "école maternelle" might have a stay-at-home mother

\*\* Childminder is a person who cares for children in her (or his) home for pay

Around 70% of children aged under 3 are cared for either by a publicly subsidized child-care arrangement or are attending a crèche or a nursery school: breakdown according to the child care arrangement

Source : CNAF- DREES, 2003

**Public expenditure\* devoted to individualized childcare arrangements:  
1994 – 2000 (in units of constant million euros)**

|  | 1994   | 2000     | % of increase |
|--|--------|----------|---------------|
| Child-Rearing Benefit (APE)                            | 942.35 | 2,799.43 | +197          |
| Allowance to Employ an Approved Childminder (AFEAMA)** | 685.58 | 1,694.95 | +147          |
| Allowance for Child Care in the Home (AGED)***         | 85.49  | 134.60   | +57           |

\* Paid by the Social security (all schemes)

\* \*AFEAMA : "Aide à la Famille pour l'Emploi d'une Assistante Maternelle Agréée", an allowance provided to working parents who have at least one child aged under six cared for by a registered childminder. This child-care allowance covers the social security contributions to be paid by the employer of the registered childminder. An additional and income-related financial contribution is also given to the family: 203 Euros maximum for a child aged under 3 years.

\*\* \*AGED: "Allocation de Garde d'Enfant à Domicile" (income-related amount) partly covers social security contributions which must be paid by a family who employs someone at home to care for their child(ren). It also allows income tax deduction of part of the costs.

Source: CNAF, Bureau des prévisions, C. Boissières, 2002

### **2.2.3 Netherlands**

In the Netherlands, day care for children has long been regarded as mainly a private responsibility and public provision of childcare has only been expanded since the 1990s. In 1990, the Dutch government introduced the Stimulation Measure on Childcare designed to stimulate childcare facilities for working parents. The introduction of this measure reflected a major policy change in the Netherlands. The measure included the provision of central government funding to local authorities for establishing new childcare centres in the period 1990 to 1 January 1996. The Stimulation Measure actively stimulated employers to participate and to buy or hire childcare places for their employees in childcare centres. As a result childcare in the Netherlands is characterised by

a public-private partnership between government and employers. During the Stimulation Measure employers received a subsidy for part of the costs involved. In 1989, employers contracted 13 per cent of childcare places. In 1998, this was already 44% and by the end of 2000 it was 49% of places (SGB0, 2001). In 2000, employers paid 23 per cent of childcare cost; government paid 36% and parents 41% (SGB0, 2001). When the Stimulation Measure for childcare ended, local governments still received subsidies for childcare, but the budget was cut and there was no longer the obligation to spend the subsidy on childcare facilities (Van Doorne-Huiskes et al., 1996). Tax deduction became the new instrument to stimulate employers' involvement in childcare. Employers can deduct 30% of the costs involved. Because the supply did not meet the demand for childcare, the government decided again to make more money available for the expansion of childcare this time emphasizing after-school care for 4-12 olds. The number of after school care facilities rose from 19.278 in 1998 to 54.995 in 2002 ([www.uitbreidingkinderopvang.nl](http://www.uitbreidingkinderopvang.nl)). The total capacity of child care facilities increased by 10 % during the year 2000. Before 2003, 71.000 additional childcare places had to be created. In practice it appears that municipalities who are responsible for a large part of the expansion of places, are in fact creating more child care facilities than considered necessary by the government (SGB0, 2001). In 2000, 20.4 % of children under the age of 4 enrolled in childcare centres (half a day and whole day-care centres) or were taken care of by childminders. Of the children between 4 and 7, 6.4 % enrolled in after school care and among the children between 8 and 12 this percentage was 2.5 (SGB0, 2001).

Finally, a new Act on childcare is being prepared by the government (Wet basisvoorziening kinderopvang). Within this new Act on Childcare the goal of extending affordable childcare is continued, by providing *choice* to parents. Financial support will be redirected from providers to parents in order to increase parental choice in terms of provision. The explicit aim of the reform is to "stimulate market forces so that childcare providers will have to respond to parents wishes" (VWS, 2001). The notion of tripartite funding is retained, whereby employers are expected to contribute in the childcare costs. The funding to the local government to purchase child places will be redirected to the users of childcare, through the Tax Department. Parents will receive a payment based on their income and on the costs of care used. Employers are expected to pay their part to the parents directly, so that it follows the parental choice. Instead of being restricted to the use of services subsidised by the government or the employer, parents can choose any licensed childcare centre. However, there is no consensus yet about what to do when parents receive no employer contribution (because there is no childcare provision in the labour agreement or the parent is not employed). Together with this new reform, the government is including national quality standards into the childcare legislation. This is based on the principle that "childcare provisions contribute to the healthy development of the child in a safe environment" (VWS, 2001). The Act should come into force 1 January 2005.

## 2.2.4 Norway

### Childcare Arrangements:

In Norway, compulsory education starts at the age of 6 and continues until age 16. The Norwegian state subsidizes day care institutions for children below the school age. In contrast to the rest of Scandinavia, the large-scale investment in public childcare in Norway came too late to facilitate mothers' entrance into the labor market. In the 1970s and 1980s, Norwegian family policies tended to provide support for women in their traditional roles as full-time housewives. However, starting in the early 1990s, important reforms took place with the general purpose of enabling *both* parents to combine employment and parenthood responsibilities. The number of places available in day care institutions increased steadily in the 1990s.

Childcare policies have been controversial in Norway. The official childcare policy has been declared as providing full coverage in state subsidized daycare centers however there is a historical legacy of a lack of political consensus on the issue of public childcare (Ellingsæter 1999). Daycare institutions as pre-school education for children over 3 years of age have been traditionally more accepted, than those for children under 3, which have the primary function of enabling mothers to participate in the labor market (Wærness 1998).

Today, the most widely used care arrangement for pre-school children (1-5 years) is state-subsidized day care centres. 'Family day care' is another arrangement whereby private childminders who are approved and subsidized by the local government take care of a small group of children in their own home. This is mainly a service for children under the age of 3 (Wærness 1998). In Norway, Day Care Institutions Act regulates the purpose and design of child care institutions (*Barnehage* in Norwegian). The supply of the day care services is the responsibility of municipal authorities. Childcare institutions may be owned privately, but these must be approved by the municipality. Generally, the running costs of all officially approved day care services are distributed between the state, the municipality and the parents. The percentage of children in the age group 1-5, attending a day care centre has increased from 19 in 1980 to 61 in 1999. There has been a further increase in the last few years. In 2002, the coverage rate for children in the age group 1-5 was 66 per cent (Statistics Norway). The opening hours of day care centres are arranged by the institutions' own by-laws. Most child care centres in Norway follow the "normal" opening hours, namely from 7:30-8:30 in the morning to 15:30-16:30 in the evening. Standard working hours in Norway are 7,5 hours per day.

Individual municipalities are responsible for running primary and lower secondary schools, while county authorities have responsibility for upper secondary schools. Most schools provide day-care facilities for school children (so called "School leisure time arrangements" *Skolefritidsordning*-SFO in Norwegian). The aim is to provide facilities for play and for participation in

cultural and recreational activities outside the normal opening hours. The opening hours for the schools vary according to the classes and school types.

### **Cash-for-Care Scheme:**

In 1998, a new 'cash for home care' (*Kontantstøtte*) policy was introduced. This policy implies that parents can choose a cash benefit instead of a daycare center if they want to take care of their children themselves. The arrangement entitles all parents who have children between 1 and 3 years of age, who do not use state sponsored childcare, the same amount of money as the state subsidy per child. The law is formulated in the following way:

Act No. 41 of 26 June 1998 concerning Cash Benefit for Parents with Small Children (Cash Benefit Act)

"The objective of this Act is to help parents to spend more time caring for their own children, to give them genuine freedom of choice as regards type of care for their children and to bring about greater equality in the transfers the individual family receives for child care from the State, irrespective of the child care arrangements made by the parents.

The benefit is a monthly, tax-free payment of approximately 370 Euros and is roughly equivalent to the state subsidy for a place in a day-care centre.

The cash benefit is granted at the full rate if the child does not have a place at a day care centre that receives a State operating grant. If the child has a place at a day care centre that receives a State operating grant, and it is agreed in writing that the child will be at the day care centre on a part-time basis, the cash benefit is granted at a reduced rate." (Ministry of Children and Family Affairs, official internet pages)

Evaluations of the reform document demonstrate that the cash-for-care policy did not have highly significant effects, neither on the work and time-use patterns of parents, nor on the implementation and demand for state-subsidized day care centers. Mainly mothers with lower education and weaker links to the labour market have reduced their work hours in the labour market. Slightly below 20 per cent of the mothers who use cash-for-care decreased their working hours, while only 5 per cent of fathers did so (Sletvold 2000). The demand for state subsidized day care centres did not go down. Many surveys document that parents of small children have positive attitudes towards day-care centres and demand an increase in coverage rates and decrease in prices. The government has proposed an increase in the coverage of day-care for children under school age from 70 to 80 % by 2005.

In the spring of 2002, Statistics Norway conducted a survey on families' child-care preferences, labour force participation, and the use of cash-for-care. According to this survey child-care arrangements in Norway are as follows:



### Children aged 1-5 by day care arrangements (2002)

| Primary child care provider       | All types of families | Two parent families with two incomes |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Kindergarten ( <i>Barnehage</i> ) | 59                    | 74                                   |
| Parents                           | 26                    | 14                                   |
| Nanny                             | 5                     | 3                                    |
| Relatives                         | 2                     | 1                                    |
| Combination or other solutions    | 8                     | 9                                    |

Source: Statistics Norway ([www.ssb.no](http://www.ssb.no))

The government has recently decided to impose a "maximum price" arrangement for the child care institutions to reduce the amount paid by the parents. In the budget of 2004, the government has increased the funds granted for child care centres significantly. The aim is formulated as offering a place in state-subsidized child care centres for everybody who wishes to use this arrangement (Ministry of Children and Family Affairs).

#### 2.2.5 Portugal

Until the April 1974 revolution, social initiatives as childcare were few, and mostly related either to the church and other charitable institutions (to provide social support), or with private initiatives, the latter concerned with education of middle-upper class children. From the end of the 70's following the huge increase of women's participation on the labour market, new types of services appeared and a new concern with childcare and household services emerged. The use of childcare institutions increased substantially, which is illustrated by the following data.

| Years   | Number of institutions |      |      | Number of users |        |        |
|---------|------------------------|------|------|-----------------|--------|--------|
|         | 1980                   | 1990 | 1996 | 1980            | 1990   | 1996   |
| Numbers | 1364                   | 2633 | 3399 | 56704           | 175240 | 209753 |

Source: M. Guerreiro (2001) Employment, Family and Community activities: A new balance for women and men (Portuguese Report)

During the late 1990s, the Portuguese government promoted a huge expansion of child care services, simultaneously as a family supporting measure as well as an educational goal. The integration of a pre-school level (age 3 to 5) in the educational system, and the extension of its availability for all children was defined by legislation (Decree-Law 147/97) and it was taken as a priority of the Ministry of Education. In five years (1997-2002), pre-schooling rate increased from 64,3% to 76,0%. Moreover, the great increase of crèches and nannies for younger children (under 3 years old) was highly promoted by public programs and funds, as the program "Crèches 2000" and PAPI. Children's free time occupation programs, supported by the state, by the local authorities and also by the families were recently developed but until now they only affect a minority of children.

In recent years, a childcare system has been developed, based on a pluralistic model, including services created by local authorities and private non-profit organisations - both of them mainly supported by public funds - and private-profit organisations.

### **2.2.6 Slovenia**

During the 1970s and early 1980s most (68%) of the currently existing facilities were established, financed predominantly by the direct participation of the working population (Vojnovič, 1996). By the end of the 1980s public childcare centres were the only legitimate, formally organised and subsidised providers of pre-school childcare. In 1996 the private initiative was legalised and regulated, including the subsidising of some of private childcare centres programmes. The pluralisation and privatisation of the child care services have meant also the diversification of educational and care programmes.

The public subsidy for public childcare service amounts to the difference between the current costs of the programmes and the fees paid by parents. In the mid-1990s, local communities subsidised at least 40%-50% of the cost of childcare programmes for all families. Due to new regulation introduced in the school year 1997/1998 the average subsidy decreased to 31% (Stropanik, 1999). The cost of public child care during the last years has been increasing due to better quality of programmes and more qualified staff. Private childcare centres not granted a concession are entitled to a lower subsidy than those performing a public service. Parents' fees depend on the income per family member and on the costs of the programmes; they contribute 15% to 80% of programme costs. When two children in the family attend the public care centre the second child is at a reduced cost.

### Proportion of children under school-age in childcare centres

| Year          | 1961/62 | 1971/72 | 1981/82 | 1991/92 | 1997/98 | 2001/02 |
|---------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| % of children | 7.7     | 15.2    | 41.2    | 50.9    | 58.6    | 55.2*   |

\*the proportion is lower due to gradual introduction of nine year obligatory schooling.

Source: Statistical Yearbook of Slovenia, 1995, 1998, 2002

Fees are income-related. When the net income per family member is lower than 70% of the statutory minimum income, it is free to parents.

### Child care arrangements for children aged up to 3 years

| Child care arrangement:           | % of respondents |
|-----------------------------------|------------------|
| Public child care centre          | 24.0             |
| Private childcare centre          | 1.0              |
| Family care (1)                   | 1.0              |
| Paid private care outside home    | 5.7              |
| Paid private care at home         | 1.7              |
| Exchanged care with other parents | 0.5              |
| Respondent                        | 16.4             |
| Respondent's partner              | 13.4             |
| Older sibling/s                   | 1.0              |
| Grand parents                     | 32.7             |
| Other persons – no pay (2)        | 2.1              |
| TOTAL                             | 100              |

(1)organised by public childcare centre

(2) relatives, friends, neighbours

Source: Stropnik, 2001: 45, Table 2.11

### **2.2.7 Sweden**

In 2003 a maximum fee for pre-school activities and care of school-age children was introduced. That means that a ceiling is set on the fees payable by parents for their children. The maximum fee is voluntary for the municipalities. Those adopting the new system will receive compensation for loss of income and they will also receive funds for the introduction of measures to ensure that there is no drop in overall quality.

At pre-school facilities (pre-school and home day-care nursery), the fee charged may be no more than between one and three percent of the family's income, depending on how many children the family has. The fee may not, however, exceed 1,140 sek per month (105 Euros) for the family's first child, 760 sek (699 Euros) for the second, and 380 sek (345 Euros) for the third child.

The economic crises of the 1990s have put the municipalities responsible for the public day-care under severe pressure. As a consequence the quality of the service produced is questioned, as the same number of staff are responsible for more children. The number of children in an average pre-school group increased from 13.8 in 1990 to 16.6 in 1998. There was also an increase in the number of children per adult from 4.2 to 5.6, during the same period. The percentage of family day care homes with more than six children increased from 35 percent to 44 percent between 1991 and 1998 (*Early Childhood Education and Care Policy in Sweden*. Regeringskansliet December 1999). These changes have raised the issue of whether municipalities are able to maintain a high quality level of services in the public day care sector.

### **2.2.8 UK**

Day care is provided by childminders, voluntary agencies, private nurseries and local authorities as well as nannies and relations. In 2000 there were over 1 million places with childminders, in playgroups and day nurseries for children under the age of eight in England and Wales and under the age of 12 in Northern Ireland, an increase of over 50 per cent since 1987. In 2000 there were more than four times as many day nursery places as there were in 1987, and the number of childminder places more than doubled over the same period.

Nursery places, both public and private, are usually open during standard working hours, e.g. 8.00-18.00hrs. Some longer, especially in London (e.g. 7.00-19.00hrs). These are for children aged a few weeks to school age (usually 4 years). Childminder hours vary and tend to be more flexible.

Playgroup places are usually for 2.5 hours a day, twice a week, for children aged 2.5 to 4 years (therefore, not a viable alternative to other forms of childcare for working parents).

*Nursery education 3-4 years (UK school system starts at 4-5 years old)*

Since 1998 in the UK, all 4 year olds have an entitlement to a free part-day nursery education session, a total of 12.5 hours a week, usually in 5 morning sessions, and all 3 year olds will be entitled to a free early education place by September 2004. However this is often only part day e.g. 2.5 hours, or at most 6 hours. So, 3-4 year old children in England have 12.5 hours a week of part-time nursery education.

**Public and private day care provision, number of places: change between 1987 - 2001**

|   |      |      |      |      |      |
|---|------|------|------|------|------|
| Day care places for children <sup>1</sup>   |      |      |      |      |      |
| (Thousands)   |      |      |      |      |      |
| <b>England, Wales &amp; Northern Ireland</b>  |      |      |      |      |      |
|   |      |      |      |      |      |
| <b>Day nurseries</b>  |      |      |      |      |      |
|   | 1987 | 1992 | 1999 | 2000 | 2001 |
| Local authority provided <sup>2</sup>   | 29   | 24   | 16   | 18   | 19   |
| Registered  | 32   | 98   | 235  | 261  | 282  |
| Non-registered <sup>3</sup>   | 1    | 1    | 12   | 2    | 2    |
| All day nursery places <sup>4</sup>   | 62   | 123  | 262  | 281  | 304  |
| <b>Childminders</b>   |      |      |      |      |      |
| Local authority provided <sup>2</sup>   | 2    | 2    | 9    | 3    | 3    |
| Other registered person   | 159  | 275  | 360  | 349  | 331  |
| All childminder places <sup>4</sup>   | 161  | 277  | 369  | 353  | 338  |
| <b>Playgroups</b>   |      |      |      |      |      |
| Local authority provided  | 4    | 2    | 3    | 2    | 7    |
| Registered  | 434  | 450  | 383  | 391  | 347  |
| Non-registered <sup>2</sup>   | 7    | 3    | 3    | 1    | 1    |
| All playgroup places <sup>4</sup>   | 444  | 455  | 389  | 394  | 369  |
| <b>Out of school clubs<sup>5</sup></b>  |      |      |      |      |      |
|   |      |      | 119  | 153  | 165  |
|   |      |      |      |      |      |
| <sup>2</sup> England and Wales only.  |      |      |      |      |      |
| <sup>3</sup> England only before 2000; England and Wales only from 2000.  |      |      |      |      |      |
| <sup>4</sup> Figures do not add to totals. Total figures for England include an imputed figure for missing values.                                  |      |      |      |      |      |
| <sup>5</sup> For children aged five to seven in England and Wales. In Northern Ireland for children aged four to eight.                             |      |      |      |      |      |
| Source: Department for Education and Skills; National Assembly for Wales; Department of Health, Social Services and Public Safety, Northern Ireland |      |      |      |      |      |

### **State and private provision**

The UK has a high proportion of for-profit providers, with 90 percent of the 'nursery market by value' provided by private businesses, including workplace nurseries (Laing & Buisson, 2002).

Looking at day care places by type of provider, see table, there has been a decrease in state provision since 1987. The number of places in day nurseries, with childminders and in playgroups combined which were provided by local authorities fell by 34 per cent between 1987 and 2000. The rise in overall places has largely been due to a dramatic increase in provision of day nursery and childminder places by non-state bodies.

Informal care (from relatives and friends) would appear to be more common than formal childcare. 52% of families with children under 14 had used some form of formal childcare or early years education in the last year, compared to 72% who had used an informal provider (grandparents etc).

### **Key Government Developments in Childcare 2003**

- the National Childcare Strategy is investing money to expand childcare. By 2003-4 there will have been a threefold increase from £66 million in 2000-1 to over £200 million in the annual investment in childcare.
- one million new childcare places for 1.6 million children by March 2004.
- early education places are available to all four year olds and are being extended to all three year olds by 2004.
- pilot schemes for Early Excellence Centres show the value of integrated services for children and parents, bringing together day care, early education and family support. There will be up to 100 centres by 2004.
- the Neighbourhood Nurseries Initiative will bring 45,000 affordable new childcare places to deprived areas by 2004.
- the national Sure Start programme is bringing a range of services to families with children under four in deprived neighbourhoods. The programme will be extended to 500 areas by 2004.

**TABLE 2b : Admission ages to pre-primary and compulsory education****Pre-primary education**

| <b>Country</b>       | <b>BUL</b> | <b>F</b> | <b>NL</b> | <b>P</b> | <b>S</b> | <b>SLO</b> | <b>UK</b> |
|----------------------|------------|----------|-----------|----------|----------|------------|-----------|
| <b>Admission age</b> | 3          | 2        | 4         | 3        | 3        | 1          | 2.5       |

Note:

NL – the Basisonderwijs normally corresponds to a period of eight years. Children can start at age 4 but education becomes compulsory from age 5.

**Compulsory education**

| <b>Country</b>       | <b>BUL</b> | <b>F</b> | <b>NL</b> | <b>P</b> | <b>N</b> | <b>SLO</b> | <b>S</b> | <b>UK</b> |
|----------------------|------------|----------|-----------|----------|----------|------------|----------|-----------|
| <b>Admission age</b> | 7          | 6        | 5         | 6        | 6        | 6          | 7        | 5         |

Note: NL – the Basisonderwijs normally corresponds to a period of eight years. Children can start at age 4 but education becomes compulsory from age 5.

UK – In Northern Ireland, primary school starts at 4.

**TABLE 2c : Inclusion in publicly supported childhood education (middle 1990s)\***

|      | Share of children served in publicly-financed care, ages 3,4,5 | Typical schedule, primary form of care for children, ages 3,4,5 | Share of 5 year olds served (in education-oriented care) when compulsory schooling begins at 6 | Share of 6 year olds served (in education-oriented care) when compulsory schooling begins at 7 |
|------|--|---|--|--|
| BG** | 52%  | Full day  | 70%  | 81%  |
| FR   | 99%  | Full day  | 100%   | -  |
| NL   | 71%  | Mixed <sup>3</sup>  | -  | -  |
| PT*  | 56%<br>(1996)  | Mixed <sup>3</sup>  |  |  |
| NW   | 63%  | Full day  | -  | -  |
| SLO  | 70% (1)  | Full day <sup>4</sup>   | 67% (3-6 years)<br>(2001)  |  |
| SW   | 72%  | Full day  | -  | 93%  |
| UK   | 60%  | Mixed <sup>3</sup>  | -  | -  |

Source: M. Candappa et al. (2002), *Early Years And Childcare International Evidence Project*  
adapted from Meyers and Gornick (2001:167) (except Slovenia)

(1) Source: Unicef, 1995 (data 1994)

<sup>3</sup> In the NL and UK, varies within age group – part day for younger children in this age group, full day for older ones.

<sup>4</sup> Number includes 5 year olds in primary school only (pre-primary not included)

\* Source: M. Guerreiro (2001) *Employment, Family and Community activities: A new balance for women and men* (Portuguese Report)

\*\* Source: Key Data on Education in Europe 1999-2000, p. 47.

#### Notes:

**Sweden:** Universal pre-school is introduced for all four and five-year olds. All children will be offered free schooling for at least 525 hours per year. This is equivalent to about three hours per day during the school terms. Although the provision of pre-school will be mandatory to the municipalities, children will be able to participate on a voluntary basis. In the school-age child care system (leisure time centres and home day care nurseries) the fee charged may not exceed 760 SEK per month for the first child and 380 SEK for the second and the third child.

**UK:** Out of school clubs have been introduced in recent years and in 2000 there were 153 thousand such places in England, Wales and Northern Ireland. The exception to the trend of rising provision is in playgroups, in which the number of places fell by 11 per cent between 1987 and 2000.

**Bulgaria:** Primary schools are open 5 days a week for half a day.



**TABLE 2d : Usual opening hours of primary schools**

| <b>Country</b> | <b>Opening hours</b>  | <b>Meal provision/<br/>supervision<br/>during lunch<br/>break</b>      |
|----------------|---|--|
| Bulgaria       | 8.30-11.30 or 13.30-16.30 (two shifts, the number of hours increase with age)                                 | Yes  |
| France         | 8:30-11:30 and 13:30-19:30 (26 weekly hours)  | Generally  |
| Netherlands    | 8:30-12:00 and 13:15-15:30 (currently max 5½ hours a day – bill for changing to min. 3 hours a day)           | Yes (supervision during lunch break is organised by parents in school) |
| Portugal       | 9:00-12:00 and 14:00-16:00 (normal scheme)<br>8:00-13:00 or 13:00-18:00 (two-shift scheme)<br>25 weekly hours | Yes  |
| Slovenia       | 7.00-7.00. 5 days a week  | Yes  |
| Sweden         | Flexi-time patterns (around 20-25 weekly hours)   | Yes for children in school for about 5 hours                           |
| UK             | 9:00-12:00 and 13:00-15:30 (number of hours increase with age)  | Yes  |

## **2.3 Statutory leave arrangements for parents<sup>10</sup>**

<sup>10</sup> *Based on information provided by members of the Transitions team, updated May – September 2003*

## **Definitions**

**Maternity/Paternity leave:** paid leave during the period immediately prior and after childbirth (in some countries called parental leave because both parents are eligible)

**Childcare or parental leave:** optional extended leave to take care of young children (in some countries also called parental leave)

## **More detailed information for each country:**

### **2.3.1 Bulgaria**

Maternity leave (for pregnancy and childbirth) is for 135 days. It is taken by the mother: 45 days before birth and 90 days after the birth. The payment for maternity leave is based on the previous wage – 90% of earnings.

Parental leave is 21 months. It starts from the fourth month of the child (after maternity leave) until the child turns two years of age and can be taken by the mother, father, or one of their parents, that is grandmothers or grandfathers. The payment for this leave is the minimum salary 110 BGN (56.24 Euro) for 2003. This leave is inflexible - it can be taken only until the child turns two.

There are additional forms of child leaves helping working parents. Mothers with two children aged up to 18 have the right of additional two days of holidays each year and 4 days if they have three or more children. This leave can be taken by the father instead. For taking care of a sick child the mother or the father can take up to 60 days of paid leave per year. The payment is 100% of the salary until the child is up to 3 years old. After that the parents of a sick child can take up to 60 days but receive 70% or 90% of their salary depending on the working experience of the parent. The new Law for protection, rehabilitation and social integration of people with disabilities adopted in 1996 provides better conditions for retirement of parents who have taken care of a disabled child.

### **2.3.2 France**

#### **Maternity leave**

16-26 weeks (+extra for multiple births). A minimum of 4 weeks must be taken before the birth, with a further 2 weeks [or 4 weeks for a third or later order child] which can be taken before or after birth. There is a further 10 weeks after birth [or 18 weeks for third or later order child]. In addition, in the case of a first child, a woman is entitled to two extra weeks of post-natal leave if she has twins, and 12 weeks extra for triplets; in the case of a second child, a woman is entitled to 12 extra weeks of post-natal leave for a multiple birth; with two extra weeks for multiple births to women who already have two or more children. Paid at 84% of earnings (but not taxed).

Net salary with ceiling of (or capped at) 2432 Euros per month (full salary can be maintained depending on collective agreements. Employer must only keep paying the amount above the maternity benefit) or 64 Euros per day (2002).

During the first year after birth, employed women who are breast-feeding are allowed two breaks per day from their employment, each of 30 minutes.

### **Paternity leave**

11 days (2 weeks), to be taken during the four months after the birth. Before, fathers could take three days paternity leave within 15 days before or after childbirth with full salary paid. Some fathers had more days according to collective agreements.

Earnings-related cash benefits for insured men: Net salary with ceiling of 2432 Euros per month (full salary can be maintained depending on collective agreements. Employer must only keep paying the amount above the paternity benefit) or 64 Euros per day (2002).

Eligibility Criteria: all fathers who have been employed at least 200 hours within the 3 months before paternity leave begins and registration under insurance scheme for at least 10 months at the beginning of paternity leave.

### **Childcare (or Parental) leave**

Statutory entitlement introduced in 1977; further legislation in 1984, 1986, 1991 and 1994.

Each family is entitled to full-time leave until a child reaches 36 months. Leave therefore is a family entitlement; leave can be taken by the mother or the father, or the parents may share the leave between them, one following the other.

The parent taking leave may work part time (defined as between 16 and 32 hours per month).

Parents taking leave receive no benefit payment if they have only one child. They receive a flat-rate benefit payment (Allocation Parentale d'Education) if they have two or more children of Euros 493 per month (rather more than half the 'SMIC' or guaranteed minimum wage). The benefit is paid at a reduced rate if the parent taking leave works on a part-time basis (Euros 326 per month if working under 20 hours a week; Euros 246 if working between 20 and 32 hours a month in 2003).

Eligibility conditions for receiving a benefit payment are more restrictive for parents with only two children compared to parents with three or more. In the former case parents are only eligible if they have worked for at least two years out of the five preceding birth; in the latter case parents are eligible if they have worked two years at any time in the last ten years preceding birth.

### 2.3.3 Netherlands

#### Statutory leave arrangements in 2003

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|   |   |
|---|---|
| <b>Maternity leave</b>  | 16 weeks, fully collective paid leave (100% of normal salary; up to maximum)  |
| <b>Paternity leave</b>  | 2 days paid leave (100% of normal salary)   |
| <b>Parental leave</b>   | 13 weeks to be taken up part-time, per child under 8 years of age, for each parent.   |
| <b>Emergency leave and other short absence leave</b>                | The right to leave work with preserve of wage because of exceptional circumstances. When coming together with the short-term care leave, the emergency leave will end after one day.                              |
| <b>Short term care leave</b>  | 10 days paid leave a year to be able to take care of ill children, partners and parents within the household (payment is 70% of normal salary)  |
| <b>Adoption leave</b>   | Four weeks of collective paid adoption leave for both parents who adopt a child, or for both foster parents when it is clear that the child will be placed within the family permanently.                         |
| <b>Financial support in case of leave to care for seriously ill</b> | Financial support for workers who take leave to care for seriously ill persons (about 40% of the guaranteed minimum wage)   |
| <b>Financial support for career break</b>                           | Financial support for workers who take a long term leave and are replaced by an unemployed person, a person who re-enters the labour market or who is partly disabled (about 40% of the guaranteed minimum wage). |
| <b>Delayed taxes for savings to finance unpaid long term leave</b>  | A delay of taxes applies to special savings account to finance periods of long term unpaid leave  |

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Since December 2001 the Work and Care Act came into effect. This act brings together different types of leave in order to facilitate the combination of work and care (see table above for an overview).

#### **Maternity leave**

Dutch women are entitled to 16 weeks fully paid maternity leave. Four to six weeks have to be taken before birth and the remaining 10 to 12 weeks can be taken after a child is born. Since 1998, self-employed women have had the right to 16 weeks maternity allowance to a maximum of 100% of the minimum wage (Niphuis-Nell, 1997).

#### **Paternity leave**

Two days paid leave for the partner (male or female) of the woman giving birth, to be taken up in a period of 4 weeks after childbirth.

#### **Parental leave**

In 1991 parental leave was introduced; working parents, both fathers and mothers, were given the right to take six months part-time leave without wage compensation. At that time parental leave could only be taken part-time. The

reason was to ensure that employees would keep in touch with their workplace during their time on leave. However, as a result of the EU Parental Leave Directive, working parents can since 1997 also take three months full-time leave if the employer agrees (Bruning and Plantenga, 1999). Since January 2001 employers who offer their employees wage compensation during their time on leave (i.e. paid parental leave) receive a subsidy of a maximum of 70% of minimum wage. The employer must pay at least 70% of the guaranteed minimum wage and have an officially written policy on paid parental leave either included in the collective agreement or in the organisational policies. Furthermore, since 2001 parental leave can be taken in (a maximum of) three separate periods (of a minimum of one month) if people want to.

The Parental Leave Act is considered as a minimum, which can be supplemented by collective agreements or policies of individual firms. A study which analysed collective agreements operative in 2000 found that 26% of the agreements offered additional parental leave arrangements such as, (partial) paid leave (6% of the collective agreements) or a longer period of leave (Schaeps et al., 2002).

### **Emergency leave and short-term care leave**

When an employee needs time off work because of exceptional personal circumstances such as the death of a family member, a sick child or family member, or a domestic crisis, the employee has the right to take up emergency leave. When emergency leave is taken to care for a sick child or family member (partner, parent) emergency leave ends within one day. When more leave is needed employees can take up short-term care leave.

In total employees have a right to a maximum of ten days short-term care leave per year. These ten days are reserved to take care of sick children, partners or parents. Part-timers receive leave pro rata to their working hours. An employer can refuse short-term care leave if it contradicts severely with the interest of the firm. Two conditions for receiving short-term care leave are the necessity of the care and that the care can only be provided by the employee. Once the leave has been granted, the employer has no rights to cut the leave short even if the situation at work changes and is obliged to continue payment of at least 70% of the wage. The employer can deviate from the right to emergency leave and short-term care leave in collective agreements or in agreements with the work council. For instance, it is possible for collective agreements to state that people first have to use annual leave if they are entitled to more holidays than the legislative minimum.

### **Adoption leave**

Since December 2001 adoptive parents and foster parents (who take a child long term into their home) have the right to a maximum of four weeks paid adoption leave during a period of 18 weeks around the adoption. The leave may start two weeks before the child is transferred into the parent's home.

This benefit is also meant for non-employees such as shopkeepers (i.e. the self-employed).

### **Financial support for long term care leave and career break**

In October 1998, the government introduced the Financial Support for Career Breaks Act, which is now part of the Work and Care Act. The Act does not give employees the right to take leave but the possibility to apply for financial support during their time of care leave or educational leave if an unemployed person replaces them. The question of whether an employee can take leave is a matter of collective agreement or negotiation with the individual employer. When an employee needs to take leave to care for seriously ill it is also possible to apply for financial support. In this case the support is unconditional; i.e. a replacement is not necessary. The maximum financial support for 2002 is 490,54 euro gross per month ([www.verlofwijzer.nl](http://www.verlofwijzer.nl)).

There is no legal entitlement to take long term leave to care for the seriously ill. But in July 2002 a Bill was sent to parliament proposing a right to a long term care leave of six weeks maximum a year to care for a dying child, partner or parent or a child with a life threatening illness. During the leave a benefit of 70% of the guaranteed minimum wage would be paid. Up until now, summer 2003, the Bill has not been discussed in parliament yet, due to elections and changes of government. Furthermore, the present government does not support the proposal for a benefit during long term leave.

### **Tax delay for special savings to finance unpaid leave**

Since 1 January 2001 employees have the possibility (if their employers offer them this arrangement) to save up to 10% of their gross annual income a year on a special savings account. They may save up to a maximum of one gross annual income. Taxes do not have to be paid until the savings are used to finance periods of leave. The present government wants to extend the possibilities and profits of this savings arrangement. The financial support for career breaks and long term leave mentioned above would then be abolished.

#### **2.3.4 Norway**

The period of paid parental leave was gradually extended, and in 1993 was set at 42 weeks with full pay, or 52 weeks on an 80 percent wage. Women who do not qualify for parental leave receive a lump sum grant which was around 4.000 Euro in 2000.

Three weeks before and six weeks after birth are reserved as the mother's quota. A new father's quota – 4 weeks' paid leave which cannot be transferred to the mother – was introduced in 1993. Though fathers had the opportunity to share paid leave with mothers earlier, only 2 per cent of them took advantage of it. After the introduction of this quota, which cannot be transferred to the mother, the percentage of fathers taking leave increased to over 80 per cent. Studies show that the likelihood that a father will use the quota increases when the mother works full-time and earns a relatively high income (Brandth & Överli 1998). If the father chooses not to make use of his four weeks, the weeks must be forfeited. There are two weeks of unpaid 'daddy leave' in

connection with childbirth. Parents have the right to unpaid leave for up to 2 years.

A "time-account" scheme allows parents to take portions of their paid leave in combination with part-time work. Parents have the opportunity to work shorter hours without a reduction in income until the child is two or three years old.

The period of full-time leave of absence is reduced, but the size of the parental or adoption benefit remains the same. The benefit period is extended and the parents can combine work with care of the child without loss of income.

Nursing mothers are entitled to at least one hour off each day, or as necessary for this purpose. Alternatively, if she prefers to do so, a nursing mother can reduce her working hours by one hour per day by arriving one hour later or leaving one hour earlier than her normal working hours.

Employees who have the care of children under the age of 12 are entitled to leave with pay (care pay) to look after sick children. Each parent is entitled to leave with care pay for up to 10 days per year. Parents with more than two children are entitled to 15 days each. Single providers are entitled to 20 days' leave to look after sick children, or 30 days if they have the care of more than two children under the age of 12.

In 1998, a new 'cash for home care' (*Kontantstøtte*) policy was introduced. This policy implies that parents can choose a cash benefit instead of a daycare center if they want to take care of their children themselves. The arrangement entitles all parents who have children between 1 and 3 years of age, who do not use state sponsored childcare, the same amount of money as the state subsidy per child.

### **Father's right to parental benefits:**

The National Insurance Act has been amended to allow the father to receive parental or adoption benefit based on his own rights regardless of whether the mother has earned rights in the labour market. Parental benefit refers to the amounts that are intended to replace wages and salaries during leave of absence. This depends on what the mother does after the birth of the child. The father is not entitled to parental benefits while the mother is at home looking after the child. The father receives rights only if the mother goes out to work, takes education or combines the two which together equal full time. If the mother works part-time, the father's parental benefit is reduced in proportion. This amendment applies to births and adoptions taking place after 1 July 2000.



### **2.3.5 Portugal**

Current labour law regulates the protection of parenthood and the possibility of giving assistance to the family:

#### **Leave arrangements**

(see Law 4/84, April 5; Decree-Law 142/99, August 31; Decree-Law 70/2000, May 4 and Decree-Law 230/2000 April 29)

#### **Maternity leave**

For employed women (paid-100% of the salary, supported by the Social Insurance) – 120 days, up to 30 days may be before birth. The law allows parents to share the 120 days' leave or to allocate it to the father (except the first six weeks after the birth). This option of sharing the leave had been first introduced in Decree-Law 17/95 June. Previously fathers could only use this leave in case of mothers illness/death). For twins the leave increases by 30 days.

#### **Paternity leave**

For employed fathers (paid-100% of the salary, supported by the Social Insurance) – 5 days

#### **Parental leave**

2 weeks 100% paid to the father

Two paid hours per working day until the child is one year old, for mother if breastfeeding, for any parent if the mother is not breastfeeding the child.

#### **Parental leave**

Up to 3 months, unpaid, to be used either by the mother or the father (or for part-time work up to 6 months or a combination of both), while the child is less than 6 years old. The new labour law (Código do Trabalho 2003, to be effective by next November) maintained these entitlements, extending the 6 months "part-time flexible parental leave" to a period of 12 months.

#### **Adoptive parental leave**

Unpaid, 100 days leave for adoption of a child (age below 15 years)

#### **Sick leave**

Unpaid, up to 30 days a year, to support sick children aged less than 12

#### **Grandparents leave**

Unpaid, up to 30 days, to support adolescent mothers who are less than 16 years old, if living together

### 2.3.6 Slovenia

Maternity leave scheme is based on the Labour Relations law that determines the length of maternity/parental leave and the Law on Parenthood Protection and Family Benefits, which regulates the benefits in cash and in kind for the determined period.

The duration of **Maternity leave** from 1986 onwards is **105 days**, 28 of which have to be taken prior to delivery. Another **260 days** or up to the child's 17th month in case of working half time, are provided as **childcare and protection leave**, which can be taken by either parent. If twins are born or baby is handicapped or born prematurely the child care period is extended for 3 months; if more than two children are born the caring period can extend for another 3 month for each child.

According to the new Law on Parenthood Protection and Family Benefits (2001) which was put into force in the beginning of 2002 the employed parent has a right to work part-time or have shorter working hours until the child is 3 years old. The parent receives monies from the state social security insurance as he/she will be full time employed. If a child is mentally or severely physically handicapped there is no age limit. If parents have already had at least two children below the age of 8 years at home the duration of parental leave is increased according to the number of children- the longest prolongation is 90 days. In case of a child being born to a student below the age of 18, one of the grand parents is allowed to use this leave.

Maternity leave is contribution based, all employees, including the self-employed, farmers, elected representatives who have public functions, sportsmen/sportswomen and chess players who have achieved top results, those unemployed persons who receive unemployment benefit, prisoners and foreigners (under certain conditions) are insured for parenthood. Therefore during the maternity/parental leave they get **income replacement** which is 100% of the average income in the last 12-months before maternity leave starts. In January 2002 the upper limit (maximum 2.5 times of the average wage in Slovenia) and the lower limit (55% of the minimum wage) for wage compensation were introduced. The upper limit does not apply to maternity leave. **Parental allowance** is offered to all Slovenian citizens having permanent residence in Slovenia and who are not insured for parenthood. The amount of parental allowance is 52% of guarantee wage. If the 260 days for childcare has not been completely used up, the parents could get the voucher (an equivalent amount of money covering the unused leave) to pay childcare to somebody else, for the rent of the flat or to assist with their housing expenses.

The new Law on Parenthood Protection and Family Benefits (2001) introduced **paternal leave** (non transferable) for the duration of **90 days**, 15 of which (with 100% wage replacement) the father would have to take during mother's maternity leave, while the remaining 75 days the father would receive the social security contribution based on the minimum wage. The remaining 75

days can be used up until the child is 8. Due to budget restrictions paternal leave will be introduced gradually: 15 days in January 2003, a further 30 days in January 2004 and the rest of the 45 days in 2005. The duration of **adoption leave** for parents who have adopted the child depends on the age of the child.

### **2.3.7 Sweden**

#### **Maternity leave**

60 days leave before birth for women who cannot continue with their ordinary job and cannot be transferred to alternative duties; 50 days are covered by a maternity allowance, whilst payment for the other 10 days must come from childcare leave allowance. Alternatively, women can take up to 60 days of childcare leave before birth. This is paid at 80% of earnings. All women, including those not eligible for childcare leave, are entitled to 6 weeks leave before and 6 weeks after birth.

#### **Paternity leave**

Paid at 80% of earnings. The 10 so called "daddy days" (introduced 1980) are transferable to another insured person than the father. The temporary cash benefit is also transferable to another insured person. This is a way to recognise the variety of family forms, lone parents, gay and lesbian parents etc, along with intergenerational relations (Source: National Social Insurance Board 2003-01-01 and the National Agency of Education).

#### **Parental leave**

Statutory entitlement introduced in 1974. Several further changes in legislation, most recently in 1995.

Each parent is entitled to 18 months of full-time leave (Child Care Leave). A benefit payment (Parental Allowance) is available for 480 days per family, paid for 390 days at 80% of earnings, and for 90 days at a flat rate of SEK 60 per day. For multiple births, paid leave is extended by 90 days at 80% of earnings and by a further 90 days at SEK 60 per working day.

Sixty days of the parental allowance must be taken by the father. Two months of the total parental allowance are reserved for the mother and father respectively. This period cannot be transferred and therefore gets « lost » if it is not taken up. Paid leave therefore is a family entitlement, which parents can mostly share between themselves, but with some limitations on how parents can choose to share the leave providing an incentive for the father to use leave ('use it or lose it').

Leave and payment must be taken before a child reaches the age of 8 (or by the end of the child's first year at school), and can be taken in one block of time or several shorter blocks. Paid leave can be taken on a full time, half time or quarter time basis (e.g. 1 month full-time, 2 months half-time, 4 months quarter-time).

Parents are also entitled to work 75% of normal working hours until their child has completed her first year of school, although there is no payment for lost earnings (unless parents choose to use part of their Parental Allowance).

Even though the "symmetrical family" was launched during the late 1960s and became the official goal during the 1970s, the care of small children is still the main responsibility for the mothers. In this respect there still is a heavy gender bias and mothers still fulfil the traditional role as the prime care giver. Cross-sectional data shows gender inequality, however there are signs that the pattern is slowly changing over time. The number of men on parental leave is gradually increasing. Between 1981 and 1985, about 22 per cent of *married* fathers took parental leave. The equivalent figure for 1992 had increased to 38 per cent (scb 1994:1). In 1998, the figure was 32 per cent of *all men* eligible for parental insurance, including cohabiting fathers. (rvs: s statistik på nätet 2000).

How big is the cash parental benefit? (The following is a quotation from a work in progress acquired from National Social Insurance Board):

"The parental benefit has the same compensation rates as the sickness benefit calculated per day. That means 80 percent of the parent's income divided by 365 days. However there is a limit for how big the income in which the benefits is based on; that is 7,5 times the basic amount ( a kind of price index which is determined by the Government every year. The basic amount for 2003 is 38 600 SEK.  $7,5 \times 38\,600 \text{ SEK} = 289\,500 \text{ SEK}$  income per year is the compensation limit for 2002. This means there is no compensation for income over 7,5 basic amounts. It is getting more and more common though that big employers have their own compensations for employees that have salaries above the limit of 7,5 basic amounts. The employees want to help their employees to combine labour and parenthood. For the 390 of the 480 days the benefit amount corresponds to the sickness benefit calculated per day, but not less than 150 SEK ( the basic level). For the rest 90 days the parents gets 60 SEK per day, which is the lowest level. There are some conditions you have to fulfil in order to be entitled to parental benefit. To get parental benefit for the first 180 days at the sickness benefit level, the parents has to be insured for a sickness benefit above the lowest level (60 SEK) for at least 240 consecutive days immediately before the child is born, or the estimated date of delivery. As mentioned before the parents has a right to another 180 days with parental benefit if the mother gives birth to more than one child at the same time. Additional for the second child, the parents are entitled to 90 days as the sickness level, and 90 days at the lowest level. For each child thereafter all 180 days are paid at the sickness level. If the women gets pregnant again before a child is or should have been 21 months old, she can receive parental benefit at the same compensation rate as she receive when her previous child was born."

### **2.3.8 UK**

Prior to 2003

#### **Maternity leave**

All pregnant employees were entitled to 18 weeks of leave and (with some exceptions) a flat-rate payment. Women who have 1 years employment with the same employer are entitled to 40 weeks, 11 weeks before the birth, 29 weeks after the birth, with payment at 90% of earnings for 6 weeks, and a flat-rate payment for up to a further 12 weeks. Employees with weekly earnings of £30 or more, who have been employed for at least 26 weeks by the 15th week before the baby is due, are entitled to Statutory Maternity Pay.

#### **Paternity leave**

None

#### **Childcare leave**

Statutory entitlement was introduced in 1999.

Each parent is entitled to 13 weeks full-time leave per child, to be taken at any time until the child is 5 years old (or, in the case of an adopted child, during the five years after the child is placed with the family for adoption). But only up to 4 weeks leave can be taken in any one year (i.e. a parent wishing to take a full entitlement of 13 weeks will need to do so by taking 4 weeks per year for 3 years, then one week in a fourth year). Parents taking leave receive no payment.

Full details of maternity, paternity and parental leave arrangements in the UK can be found on the DTI webpages. – [www.dti.gov.uk](http://www.dti.gov.uk)

*New regulations from 6 April 2003:*

#### **Maternity leave**

All employees, regardless of hours of work or length of service, have a legal right to 26 weeks maternity leave provided they give their employer proper notice. This applies to all employees including part-time workers and those on fixed term contracts.

#### **Additional Maternity Leave (AML)**

Women who have worked for their present employer for at least 26 weeks by the end of the qualifying week (15 weeks before the beginning of the week in which your baby is due), are entitled to an additional period of leave of 26 weeks after the end of Ordinary Maternity Leave (OML).

AML starts when OML ends. This gives a total of 52 weeks of maternity absence.

#### **Statutory Maternity Pay (SMP)**

Pay during maternity leave is provided by Statutory Maternity Pay, a weekly payment for women who were in continuous employment during their

pregnancy. The employer pays it to the employee and then claims most of it back from the Inland Revenue.

### **Who qualifies for SMP?**

To qualify for SMP women must have worked for their present employer for at least 26 weeks by the end of the qualifying week (15 weeks before the beginning of the week in which their baby is due - to work this out it is necessary to count back 15 Sundays from the Sunday before the baby is due - if the baby is due on a Sunday this is included in the calculations) and must still be employed in the qualifying week.

Women must also have had average weekly earnings of £77 (April 2003-4) in the eight weeks before the end of the qualifying week (or in the two months before the end of qualifying week if you are paid monthly).

### **How much is SMP?**

SMP is paid for up to 26 weeks, the first six weeks at 90% of average salary - calculated from gross earnings in the eight weeks before the end of the 15th week before the baby is due. The remaining 20 weeks are paid at £100 per week or 90% of your weekly wages, whichever is the smaller. The employer should pay SMP on a weekly or monthly basis, deducting tax and National Insurance where necessary.

SMP is paid only for 26 weeks, therefore if a women takes AML the leave will be unpaid. Some employers offer more generous terms than the legal requirement and may allow for a longer break or give better maternity pay than the law does. Contractual terms can offer more but not less than the legal requirement.

### **Maternity Allowance (for the low paid)**

Maternity Allowance (MA) is a weekly allowance for women who are self-employed, recently employed or those who have changed jobs during their pregnancy or have a low income and are therefore not entitled to SMP. Like SMP, it is payable for 26 weeks and the earliest it can start is 11 weeks before the week the baby is due.

Women must have worked for 26 weeks or more in the 66 weeks before the week the baby is due. They must have average earnings of at least £30 a week averaged over 13 weeks.

Different rules apply for self-employed women.

MA is paid at a flat rate of £100 a week or 90% of average earnings for women who earn less than £100 a week.

### **Sure Start Maternity Grants**

A grant of £500 is available to women expecting a baby or who adopt and who are receiving either Income Support, Income-based Job Seeker's Allowance, Child Tax Credit at the maximum rate, Working Tax Credit at a rate higher than the family element or where a disabled worker is included in the assessment.

The grant may be claimed at any time between the 29<sup>th</sup> week of pregnancy and three months after the baby's birth.

### **Paternity leave (from 6 April 2003)**

Fathers and partners of women having a baby are now entitled to two weeks paternity leave paid at a flat rate of £100 a week (or 90% of average pay if income is less than £100 per week).

The Government has introduced a legal right to paternity leave. The right is to one week or two consecutive weeks of paid leave from work following birth or placement for adoption. The leave must be taken within 56 days of the birth or the child's placement in the case of adoption.

### **Paternity leave (birth)**

In order to be eligible employees must:

- have or expect to have responsibility for the child's upbringing,
- be the biological father of the child or the mother's husband or partner, and
- have worked continuously for their employer for 26 weeks leading into the 15<sup>th</sup> week before the baby is due.

### **Paternity (adoption) (very similar criteria)**

In both the above, the partner is defined as a person (whether of the same or different sex) who lives with the mother or adopter in an enduring family relationship, but is not a blood relative.

Employees can choose one or two consecutive weeks (not odd days or two separate weeks). Leave can be taken:

- from the date of the baby's birth or placement, whenever that takes place
- from a chosen number of weeks after the date of the baby's birth or placement (whenever it is born/placed) *or*
- from a chosen date.

### **Pay**

Most employees are entitled to Statutory Paternity Pay (SPP) paid at a rate of £100 per week or 90% of average weekly earnings if this is less than £100.

However, employees whose normal weekly earnings in the eight weeks ending with the 25<sup>th</sup> week of pregnancy are less than the lower earnings limit (currently £77 a week) do not qualify.

### *Parental leave (from April 2000)*

*Eligibility: Children born or placed for adoption on or after 15 December 1999.*

A maximum of 13 weeks leave may be taken at any time up to the child's 5th birthday, or 5th anniversary of the adoption placement.

Parental Leave may be taken for each qualifying child in a family by each parent. Employees must have worked for their employer for a year by the time they want to take the Leave, unless the employer waives this requirement.

Parental leave cannot be taken for a child over 18.

The leave is currently unpaid. The fallback scheme allows employees to take parental leave in blocks of one week up to a maximum of four weeks leave in a

year (for each child); or in blocks of one day if the leave is to care for a child in receipt of Disability Living Allowance, again to a maximum of four weeks a year. 21 days notice must be given .

The leave can be postponed by an employer for up to six months but it cannot be postponed when a father gives notice that he wishes to take leave from the date that his baby is born, or when an employee gives notice that he or she wishes to take leave from the date that a child is placed with him or her for adoption. Parental Leave is unpaid.

Income Support is available to certain groups who are taking parental leave.



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[www.childcarelink.gov.uk](http://www.childcarelink.gov.uk)

[www.surestart.gov.uk](http://www.surestart.gov.uk)

([www.maternityalliance.org.uk](http://www.maternityalliance.org.uk))

| TABLE 2e : Statutory leave arrangements for parents – Summary table |                            |   |  |                           |   |  |   |   |   |
|---|----------------------------|---|--|---------------------------|---|--|---|---|---|
| Maternity leave   |                            |   |  |                           | Paternity leave   |  |   | Childcare leave   |   |
|   | Duration                   | Benefit                                     | Note   | Duration                  | Benefit   | Note   | Duration  | Benefit   | Note  |
| <b>BG</b>   | 135 days                   | 90% of earnings                             | 45 days before birth,<br>90 days after birth   | None                      |   |  | 33 months<br>(up to<br>child's 3 <sup>rd</sup><br>birthday)                 | Flat rate for<br>21 months.<br>Unpaid for<br>final 12<br>months | Can be taken by<br>either parent, or<br>grandparents<br>For 4 <sup>th</sup> and<br>subsequent child<br>reduced 6-month<br>paid leave. |
| <b>F</b>  | 16-26<br>weeks             | 84% of earnings                             | 4 weeks prior and 10<br>after birth.<br>Remaining 2 either<br>before or after. Extra<br>weeks for multiple<br>births.                          | 11 days<br>(two<br>weeks) | 84% of<br>earnings  | Established in<br>2002                             | <sup>10</sup> 36<br>months up<br>to child's<br>3 <sup>rd</sup><br>birthday. | Flat-rate if<br>with two or<br>more<br>children:<br>€460/month  | Family<br>entitlement,<br>can be shared<br>between<br>parents. Part-<br>time allowed.   |
| <b>NL</b>   | 16 weeks                   | 100% of<br>earnings with<br>ceiling         | 4-6 weeks before<br>birth; 10-12 weeks<br>after birth.   | 2 days                    | 100% of<br>earnings with<br>ceiling   |  | 13 weeks<br>each parent<br>until child<br>is 8                              | Unpaid  |   |
| <b>NOR</b>  | 42 weeks<br>or 52<br>weeks | 100 % of<br>earnings<br>80 % of<br>earnings | 3 weeks prior and 6<br>weeks after birth are<br>reserved for the<br>mother. The rest can<br>be shared between<br>the mother and the<br>father. | 4 weeks                   | 100 % of<br>earnings<br>(if the mother<br>works more<br>than 75 %)  | Paternity<br>quota<br>(reserved for<br>the father) | 52 weeks  | Unpaid  | Each parent is<br>entitled to 1<br>year's unpaid<br>leave, in addition<br>to the parental<br>leave period of<br>52 weeks              |
| <b>P</b>  | 120 days                   | 100% of<br>earnings                         |  | 5 days                    | 100% of the<br>earnings   |  | 6 months<br>each parent<br>until child<br>is 3                              | Unpaid  | Extension after<br>3 <sup>rd</sup> child.   |
| <b>SLO</b>  | 105 days                   | 100% of<br>earnings                         | 4 weeks before the<br>birth  | 90 days                   | 15 days: 100%<br>of earnings,<br>then 75 days<br>paid by social<br>security<br>(statutory<br>minimum<br>income) |  | 260 days  | 100% of<br>earnings   | Can be shared<br>between parents.<br>Part time job<br>allowed until the<br>child reaches 3<br>years old                               |

<sup>10</sup> Including maternity leave

| TABLE 2e : Statutory leave arrangements for parents – Summary table |  |   |                                    |          |                          |  |  |   |   |
|---|--|---|------------------------------------|----------|--------------------------|--|--|---|---|
| Maternity leave   |  |   | Paternity leave                    |          |                          | Childcare leave  |  |   |   |
|   | Duration   | Benefit   | Note                               | Duration | Benefit                  | Note   | Duration                               | Benefit   | Note  |
| <b>SWE</b>  | 12 weeks   | 80% of earnings   |                                    | 2 weeks  | 80% of earnings          |  | 18 months each parent until child is 8 | 80% of earnings for 360 days and €6.50/day for 90 days with ceiling | Part-time leave allowed.  |
| <b>UK</b>   | 26 weeks for all women and 52 weeks if with employer for 6 months. | 90% of earnings for 6 weeks and flat-rate for 20 weeks (£100 per week). | 11 weeks before birth.<br>41 after | 2 weeks  | Flat rate £100 per week. | Must take within 56 days of birth.<br>Established in 2003. | 13 weeks each parent until child is 5  | Unpaid  | Up to 4 weeks only in any one year. Has to be taken in week blocks. |

## **2.4 Family policy and per capita spending on social protection**

### 2.4.1 Norway and Sweden, the most generous countries

Share of GDP devoted to the Social protection system is more or less similar in four Member States (France, Netherlands, UK and Sweden) and in Norway but much lower in Portugal (Table 2f). There is no strong relationship between expenditure on social protection and GDP per capita: others factors beyond GDP per capita influence social spending, such as the age structure of the population, the level of unemployment and the share of private social services.

Within the Social protection system, level of expenditures devoted to Family and Children (benefits in kind, child benefits, child care allowances, maternity and parental leaves, maternity benefits, housing benefits, etc...) varies cross-nationally: Norway, Sweden and France are the most generous countries. Portugal and the Netherlands contribute least in this field. (Table 2f).

According to Millar and Warman (1996)<sup>11</sup>, distinctions can be drawn within policies towards family obligations. These authors identified three broad typologies based on the extent and range of family obligations: minimal family obligations and state provision directed at the individual (Denmark, Finland, **Sweden** and **Norway**); family obligations defined in respect of the nuclear family of spouses and children (Austria, Belgium, **France**, Germany, Ireland, Luxembourg and the **UK**) and clear obligations within the nuclear family embedded within a wider set of responsibilities involving the extended family (Greece, Italy, **Portugal** and Spain).

### 2.4.2 Family Policy is often interlinked with social and employment policies

As far as (explicit or implicit) family policy is concerned, our countries represent a broad range of approaches to supporting families, from the *laissez-faire* end of the spectrum with Portugal to the world's top-of-the-line welfare state with Norway and Sweden, with strongly pro-family policies in France. This palette of policy approaches is illustrated by Tables 2g and 2h.

Family allowances or child benefits can be based on the principle of universality or they can vary according to the income or be means-tested<sup>12</sup> like in the UK. They can also vary according to the number and age of the children (like in France).

Tables 2g and 2h draw on a recent attempt (Math, 2003) to measure a broad package of family benefits in 22 countries for hypothetical families

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<sup>11</sup> Millar, J. and Warman, A. (1996) Family Obligations in Europe. London: Family Policy Studies Centre.

<sup>12</sup> Math, A. 2003, Les politiques publiques d'aide aux familles en Europe et leurs évolutions depuis le début des années 1990, Rapport de recherche pour la CNAF.

(case-types study). 'Family advantage' (Sum of family benefits) is the supplement of income provided through social transfers to couples with 2 children compared to couples in the same economic situation but with no child.

The full package includes cash benefits, the impact of the tax system, support for housing expenditures and the net costs (after allowance for free school meals, re-imbursement of health expenditures, etc...) to families of their children's education and health (assuming, for instance, one visit to the dentist per year). The situation shown dates back to July 2001. The figures therefore reflect a number of recent policy developments in our countries.



**TABLE 2f : Share of GDP devoted to the social protection system and within it to family policy and per capita spending on social protection in ppp (1999)**

|             | <b>% of GDP to<br/>SP</b> | <b>% to Family<br/>and Children</b> | <b>Per capita<br/>spending on<br/>social<br/>protection in<br/>PPP*</b> |
|-------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------------|---|
| France      | 30.3                      | 9.8                                 | 6385  |
| Netherlands | 28.1                      | 4.3                                 | 6902  |
| Norway      | 27.9                      | 13.2                                | 7367  |
| Portugal    | 22.9                      | 5.2                                 | 3588  |
| Sweden      | 32.9                      | 10.5                                | 7116  |
| UK          | 26.9                      | 8.8                                 | 5872  |

Source : EUROSTAT, 2002, Statistiques en bref

\* Purchasing Power Parity

**TABLE 2g : Breakdown of 'family advantage'\* for a very low income couple with 2 children respectively aged 7 and 14 years old\*\* (in purchase power parity\*\*\*)**

| Country                           | France     | Netherlands | Norway     | Portugal   | Sweden     | UK         |
|-----------------------------------|------------|-------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|
| Income tax deduction              | 5          | 280         | 0          | 0          | 0          | 743        |
| Social contributions              | 0          | 0           | 0          | 0          | 0          | 0          |
| Family allowances (Child benefit) | 147        | 168         | 178        | 75         | 199        | 173        |
| Others                            | 109        | 0           | 0          | 198        | -62        | 0          |
| Housing benefit                   | 94         | 40          | 218        | 0          | 251        | -110       |
| Local taxes                       | -17        | 0           | 0          | 0          | 0          | -44        |
| Costs related to school           | 38         | -79         | 0          | -3         | 65         | 0          |
| Health cost                       | 0          | 0           | -2         | -1         | 0          | 6          |
| <b>Total of family advantage*</b> | <b>376</b> | <b>410</b>  | <b>394</b> | <b>269</b> | <b>453</b> | <b>766</b> |

Source: A. Math, C. Meilland, IRES- CNAF, 2003

\*'Family advantage' (Sum of family benefits) is the supplement of income provided through social transfers to couples with 2 children compared to couples in the same economic situation but with no child.

\*\* One-earner in the family, working 64 hours per month and paid at the statutory minimum income level (SMIC)

\*\*\* The amounts in national currency (July 2001) and their values have been converted in Euros value. One PPP corresponds to the purchase power provided by one Euro in France.

**TABLE 2h : Breakdown of 'family advantage'\* for a high income couple\*\* with 2 children respectively aged 7 and 14 years old (in purchase power parity\*\*\*)**

| Country                            | France     | Netherlands | Norway     | Portugal   | Sweden     | UK         |
|------------------------------------|------------|-------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|
| Income tax deduction               | 138        | 12          | 0          | 23         | 0          | 67         |
| Social contributions               | 0          | 0           | 0          | 0          | 0          | 0          |
| Family allowances (Child benefit)  | 107        | 168         | 178        | 51         | 199        | 173        |
| Others                             | 0          | 0           | 0          | 0          | 0          | 0          |
| Housing benefit                    | 0          | 0           | 0          | 0          | 0          | 0          |
| Local taxes                        | -5         | 0           | 0          | 0          | 0          | -33        |
| Costs related to school            | 0          | -124        | 0          | -122       | 65         | 0          |
| Health cost                        | -4         | -110        | -2         | -1         | 0          | 0          |
| <b>Total of family advantage *</b> | <b>236</b> | <b>-54</b>  | <b>176</b> | <b>-50</b> | <b>263</b> | <b>207</b> |

Source: A. Math, C. Meilland, IRES, 2003

\* 'Family advantage' is the supplement of income provided through social transfers to couples with 2 children compared to couples in the same economic situation but with no child

\*\* Dual-earner couples (both working full-time): income per month represents FF 27,732.3

\*\*\* The amounts in national currency (July 2001) and their values have been converted in Euros value. One PPP corresponds to the purchase power provided by one Euro in France.

## **CHAPTER THREE** Demographic patterns and fertility rates

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### **3.1 Demographic context**

Setting the demographic context of each country, it is useful to consider the number of births per country in the year 2000, in parallel with the age pyramid, the total population, the proportion of women of fertile age and the population density. Figure 3a relates all this data for the eight countries studied. It shows the very low number of births in Bulgaria. Slovenia is going through a similar situation except for having a high proportion of women aged between 15 and 44 years old (just below Portugal's proportion). Among the Western and Northern countries, France and the Netherlands show the highest number of live births in proportion of the population, followed with Norway, followed by the United Kingdom (at a comparable level with Portugal). Finally, Sweden counts the lowest amount of births in proportion of its population and the lowest proportion of women of fertile age.

### **3.2 A global glance at fertility**

It is useful to start by outlining some basic demographic theory and explaining what we mean by demographic and fertility transition.

Demographic transition is, according to the INED's definition, the transition from a traditional demographic regime in which fertility and mortality are high towards a modern regime in which fertility and mortality are much lower. This has happened during the last century for most European countries.

Furthermore, we can also speak about fertility transition, which is the transition from a so-called regime of "natural" fertility towards a regime of "controlled" fertility due to the availability of effective contraception means and a medically assisted fertilisation when necessary. This fertility transition occurred in the Northern and Western European countries during the last thirty years. The Southern countries began this evolution later owing to a more resilient family pattern but went through it quicker. Finally, the Eastern European countries had a specific evolution with a fertility rate maintained at a sufficient level by strong family policies during the planned economy phase. The fall of the Communist regime led to an end of the policies inciting people to have children and therefore to a strong decrease in fertility rates, catching up with the process of fertility transition experienced in Western Europe. In Slovenia the decrease of fertility below replacement level has already happened in the 1980s, leading to some policy measures which have led to recent improvements.

Without taking any specific countries into account for the time being, we can demonstrate two major fertility behaviours that changed along with these transitions:

- There has been a strong decrease of the proportion of women without children during the demographic transition followed by a stability period

and, for some countries by a recent rise in childlessness. This trend usually occurred in connection with a transformation of the family composition.

- The second change in demographic behaviour was the lowering of the childbirth mean age until the mid of the 60's followed by a continuous increase of age since then.

This study concentrates on the demographic changes which have occurred over the last 30 years.

### **3.3 Total and completed fertility rates**

The two main fertility indicators are the total period fertility rate and the completed fertility rate. Figure 3b shows both the total period fertility rate from 1975 to 2001, which is the sum of the fertility rates by age for a given year and the completed fertility which is the average number of children born to women belonging to the same generation once they have reached the end of their reproductive life. It is given for birth cohorts from 1950 to 1965. These two indicators may differ for long periods when fertility timing changes: for example, a delay in timing leads to a drop in the total fertility rate even if the completed fertility of the generations is not modified.

The Eastern countries pattern is characterised by a sharp decrease in fertility after the fall of Communism. It is more significant for Bulgaria where family policies were particularly strong. Slovenia's fertility pattern was less influenced by family policies and more like its Western neighbours. Its demographic behaviour is very similar to Austria's.

Portugal was the country with the highest level of total fertility rate in 1975 and with the lowest after Eastern countries in 2001. The same kind of dramatic change happened in the other Southern countries, where the fertility transition occurred later but very quickly.

The Netherlands, France and the UK show a fairly flat total fertility rate of between 1.5 and 1.7 (the Netherlands) and between 1.7 (France) and 2.0 (UK). The completed fertility stays stable for all birth cohorts until the end of the 1950s, but for later cohorts, this indicator decreases slowly.

The two Nordic countries indicators are more similar to the other European ones. The Swedish total fertility rate is more chaotic and can be explained by more fertility-encouraging family allowances from the mid 1980s to the mid 1990s coupled with a favourable economic situation at that point in time which subsequently disappeared. We can note the very stable level of the Norwegian completed fertility which stays at a level

between 2 and 2.1. The good economic situation in Norway partly explains this demographic pattern.

### **3.4 Childlessness and family composition**

There is no direct measurement of childlessness, so Figure 3c (Table 3a) shows data calculated taking the proportion of women not having at least one child in a cohort. This measure is not always totally reliable because women do not always declare the right number of children they have. For instance, data for Bulgaria appear to underestimate the proportion of women without children (see footnotes for Table 3a or Figure 3c). It is therefore important to be cautious in interpreting the level of childlessness; however study of the trends can be informative.

For each country, childlessness first decreased and then appears to have increased again. This happened first for 1950s birth cohorts in Western and Northern European countries. Slovenia shows a similar evolution but slightly later - since the 1960 birth cohort. For Portugal, this turnaround should be effective for the mid 1960s cohorts but we have to be careful with the estimated measure of the youngest birth cohorts. We already saw that it is difficult to reach conclusions for Bulgaria's data but it is worth emphasising that a low overall fertility level does not seem to have any influence on the level of childlessness.

The increase in the number of childless women has contributed to changes in family structures and to the decrease in the average household's size. From a more even distribution of women by number of children at the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, the family pattern is becoming increasingly uniform with a major proportion of one and two children families (Figure 3d: Parity distribution of completed fertility for several recent cohorts, Figure 3e: Proportion of births by order).

### **3.5 Birth calendar**

#### *Women's mean age at childbirth*

Through the two demographic transitions, birth calendar changes and a birth postponement happens as soon as the fertility transition begins. For the countries well advanced in the fertility transition, the mean age at childbirth (Figure 3f) increased all the way through the last 25 years but the increase slowed down at the end of this period. We can see a flattening curve in mean age at childbirth by cohort for the UK and Sweden. Portugal has a similar trend, but beginning at the end of the 1980s for the mean age by year and for birth cohorts born since the end of the 1950s. Along the same lines, we can see an increasing mean age at childbirth since the beginning of the 1990s in the Eastern countries.



Women's mean age at childbirth by birth order (Figure 3g) shows that the postponement of births is especially important for the first birth. Unfortunately, there is no fertility data by biological birth order in two countries: the UK and France. For the UK, data is estimated by Coleman using the General Household Survey in 1995 for England and Wales. For France, there is no reliable and comparable data by biological order.

Between 1980 and 2001, the postponement of mean age of women having their first child was especially dramatic in Slovenia with a period of almost 4 years postponement, the others countries all show a postponement of the first birth of between 2 and 3 years. Moreover, we can see for the Netherlands that women's mean age at first childbirth is reaching a plateau at 29 years.

The evolution of women's mean age at the second or more childbirth often rises more slowly than the mean age at the first childbirth, very slightly reducing the interval between births of different rank orders.

### *Fertility rates by age*

The fertility evolution is quite clear when we look at fertility rates by age group at three different periods of time (1975, 1990 and 1999). These charts show the fertility history of our eight countries (Figure 3h).

For the Netherlands, mean age of childbirth was older in 1975 than for the other countries and this special feature remains with the highest birth rate for the age group 30-34 in 1999. In addition, the total fertility level does not appear to be affected by the postponement of the birth calendar.

This is not the case for the UK where fertility at younger ages decreased without being totally compensated by a higher fertility later in life. High fertility rate under age 20 is specific to the UK in Western European countries.

Norway's situation in this regard looks more favourable than the UK's with a postponement of birth but with a higher level of fertility in 1999 than in the UK.

The Swedish chart shows the most chaotic fertility trend with a very high level of fertility in 1990 and a noticeably lower fertility in 1999.

The French situation is similar to the Norwegian one with a postponement in the birth calendar but higher fertility rates in later life to compensate.

In Portugal, the decrease in fertility appears at all ages between 1975 and 1990. It is only more recently than fertility rates after age 30 are slightly increasing again.

Slovenia's fertility rates decreased at all ages between 1975 and 1990. In the last period, the fertility rate below age 25 continued to go down and is not being totally compensated by higher fertility rates at older ages.

The special feature for Bulgaria is that fertility did not change significantly between 1975 and 1990. The fertility below age 20 remained very high, whilst the fertility at age between 20 and 24 decreased sharply in the last years without any changes later in life.

Figure 3i shows the percentage of births among women from 40 to 44 years old and confirms our previous analysis that women currently give birth later in life. Around 12% of births are in mothers aged 40 to 44 in France, Sweden and the UK; this proportion is near to 10% for Norway, the Netherlands and Portugal. At a much lower level, the proportion of the two Eastern countries indicate they are still not totally influenced by birth postponement.

Cumulative fertility by age 27 and after age 27 (Table 3c) also shows these changes in the birth calendar. The decrease of cumulative fertility observed between 1950 and 1960 cohorts in every country is compensated by an increase in fertility later in life in the Northern countries, is partially compensated in Western countries and is not compensated in Portugal and Eastern countries.

In order to be well understood, these demographic changes need to be examined in a wider context taking into account other sociological evolutions. We will first consider fertility taking the family evolution into account.

### **3.6 Births to cohabiting and single parents**

The main change in every country is the increase of births to cohabiting and single parents in the past decades (Figure 3j):

In the Northern European countries (Sweden and Norway) the proportion of extra-marital births has been and still is the highest with today approximately half of the births to non-married parents. France, the UK and Slovenia show a similar pattern with a level close to 40 % today. Bulgaria, which had a quite low level of births to non-married parents during Communism, quickly caught up the Western European countries since the beginning of the 1990s. It is now at the same level as Slovenia, the UK and France. Portugal shows a low percentage of extra-marital births which can be explained by a more resilient traditional concept of family. The proportion of births to non-married parents in the Netherlands is also low in comparison to others countries. This can be partially explained by women's higher age at childbirth, as women aged over 30 are more likely to be married.

Unfortunately, there is no data on consensual unions and therefore data on marriage does not provide much explanation of fertility changes. Figures 3k and 3l gives the mean age of women at first marriage and the proportion of ever-married women by 50.

### **3.7 Fertility rates and women's educational level: a strong discriminating factor**

Fertility changes are also influenced by the educational level of women and by their participation in the labour market. The Family and Fertility Surveys (United Nations studies) for six of our eight countries give data

on the cumulative proportion of women having a first birth by age and educational level. It includes Bulgaria, Slovenia, Portugal, France, Norway and Sweden (Table 3b). These data are calculated on population samples which are expressed differently for each country. Furthermore, the year of interview also differs, as well as the age groups chosen. So, these data are not really comparable between countries but they can be used to see the influence of the educational level for each country separately.

We can see from these figures that for every country and for all ages, there is a fertility decrease in relation to the female educational level.

However, childlessness (estimated by the percentage of women childless at age 40) is lower at higher educational levels in Bulgaria and Portugal, while it is more or less at the same level at all educational levels for Slovenia, Norway and Sweden

**TABLE 3a : Childlessness (proportion of women definitely childless by birth cohort)**

| Country                      | 1930 | 1935 | 1940 | 1945 | 1950 | 1955 | 1960 | 1965 |
|------------------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Bulgaria <sup>1</sup>        | 9,3  | 6,5  | 3,9  | 5,1  | 1,3  | 3,1  | 3    | 4,4  |
| England & Wales <sup>4</sup> | 13,1 | 11,2 | 10,6 | 10,3 | 14,5 | 16,8 | 20,4 |      |
| France <sup>3</sup>          | 13   | 10,5 | 8,3  | 8,1  | 8,3  | 8,3  | 10,2 |      |
| Portugal <sup>2</sup>        |      |      |      |      | 11   | 9,7  |      |      |
| Netherlands                  | 14,3 | 12,1 | 11,2 | 11,3 | 14,6 | 16,9 | 17,7 | 18,8 |
| Norway <sup>5</sup>          |      | 9,6  | 9,5  | 9,2  | 10   | 13,5 |      |      |
| Slovenia <sup>1</sup>        | 13,2 | 11,3 | 8,3  | 8,8  | 4,4  | 1,3  | 4    | 9,4  |
| Sweden <sup>6</sup>          | 14,7 | 13,4 | 13,2 | 12,9 | 13,9 | 12,8 | 13,3 | 14,1 |

- 1 Childlessness figures are undoubtedly underestimated.
- 2 Source: Prioux, F (1993) "L'infécondité en Europe" in Démographie Européene, vol. 2, Ined, Paris, p231-251/ Munoz-Perez, F (1987) "Le déclin de la fécondité dans le sud de l'Europe" in Population, 42(6), p 911-941. Childlessness figures are surely underestimated.
- 3 Source: Ralli (1980) "Descendance des generations francaises et probabilités d'agrandissement". Population, 41(4-5), p. 763-802
- 4 General Household Survey
- 5 Source: Brunborg, H & Krandal, O (1986) "Fertility by birth order in Norway. A register based analysis". Central Bureau of Statistics of Norway, 86/27
- 6 Source: Martinelle, S (1990) "The timing of first birth. Analysis and prediction of Swedish birth rates", Bakgrundsmaterialfran Demografiska Funktionen 1990:1, SCB

Source: Sardon, J.-P. (2002) "Evolution démographique récente des pays développés", Population, vol.57, n°1, p. 156-157.

**TABLE 3b : Fertility and women's educational level**

BULGARIA

AGE AT FIRST BIRTH BY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL AT INTERVIEW

Female sample

Year of interview: 1993

Cumulative percentage of respondents, ISCED 0-2, having first birth by age

|    | Age group (at interview) |       |       |       |      |
|----|--------------------------|-------|-------|-------|------|
|    | 25-29                    | 30-34 | 35-39 | 40-44 | 45   |
|    | Birth cohort (19..)      |       |       |       |      |
|    | 68-72                    | 63-67 | 58-62 | 53-57 | 52   |
| 20 | 79,3                     | 69,8  | 63,9  | 50,0  | 32,1 |
| 25 |                          | 94,3  | 83,6  | 80,4  | 60,7 |
| 30 |                          |       | 91,8  | 89,1  | 64,3 |
| 35 |                          |       |       | 93,5  | 71,4 |
| 40 |                          |       |       |       | 71,4 |

Cumulative percentage of respondents, ISCED 3-4, having first birth by age

|    | Age group (at interview) |       |       |       |      |
|----|--------------------------|-------|-------|-------|------|
|    | 25-29                    | 30-34 | 35-39 | 40-44 | 45   |
|    | Birth cohort (19..)      |       |       |       |      |
|    | 68-72                    | 63-67 | 58-62 | 53-57 | 52   |
| 20 | 37,6                     | 38,2  | 31,1  | 37,5  | 38,5 |
| 25 |                          | 78,1  | 80,5  | 74,0  | 76,9 |
| 30 |                          |       | 88,8  | 82,2  | 82,7 |
| 35 |                          |       |       | 87,0  | 86,5 |
| 40 |                          |       |       |       | 90,4 |

Cumulative percentage of respondents, ISCED 5-6, having first birth by age

|    | Age group (at interview) |       |       |       |      |
|----|--------------------------|-------|-------|-------|------|
|    | 25-29                    | 30-34 | 35-39 | 40-44 | 45   |
|    | Birth cohort (19..)      |       |       |       |      |
|    | 68-72                    | 63-67 | 58-62 | 53-57 | 52   |
| 20 | 16,5                     | 15,7  | 17,0  | 16,1  | 32,1 |
| 25 |                          | 58,4  | 59,6  | 68,5  | 78,6 |
| 30 |                          |       | 77,3  | 81,5  | 85,7 |
| 35 |                          |       |       | 87,9  | 92,9 |
| 40 |                          |       |       |       | 96,4 |

Source: United Nations (2001) "Fertility and family surveys in countries of the ECE region: standard country report: Bulgaria." ed. by Dimiter Philipov, p. 22.

Source: United Nations (2000) "Fertility and family surveys in countries of the ECE region: standard country report: Norway."

NORWAY

AGE AT FIRST BIRTH BY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL AT INTERVIEW

Female sample

Year of interview: 1988

Cumulative percentage of respondents, ISCED 0-2, having first birth by age

|    | Age group (at interview) |      |      |      |      |
|----|--------------------------|------|------|------|------|
|    | 23                       | 28   | 33   | 38   | 43   |
|    | Birth cohort             |      |      |      |      |
|    | 1965                     | 1960 | 1955 | 1950 | 1945 |
| 20 | 40,8                     | 44,9 | 52,0 | 43,3 | 31,0 |
| 25 |                          | 77,5 | 83,3 | 86,6 | 76,7 |
| 30 |                          |      | 96,1 | 93,7 | 89,7 |
| 35 |                          |      |      | 94,5 | 93,1 |
| 40 |                          |      |      |      | 94,0 |

Cumulative percentage of respondents, ISCED 3-4, having first birth by age

|    | Age group (at interview) |      |      |      |      |
|----|--------------------------|------|------|------|------|
|    | 23                       | 28   | 33   | 38   | 43   |
|    | Birth cohort             |      |      |      |      |
|    | 1965                     | 1960 | 1955 | 1950 | 1945 |
| 20 | 13,8                     | 17,9 | 23,5 | 25,2 | 20,5 |
| 25 |                          | 56,9 | 64,6 | 70,6 | 66,9 |
| 30 |                          |      | 81,8 | 86,5 | 85,8 |
| 35 |                          |      |      | 90,1 | 91,1 |
| 40 |                          |      |      |      | 93,4 |

Cumulative percentage of respondents, ISCED 5-6, having first birth by age

|    | Age group (at interview) |      |      |      |      |
|----|--------------------------|------|------|------|------|
|    | 23                       | 28   | 33   | 38   | 43   |
|    | Birth cohort             |      |      |      |      |
|    | 1965                     | 1960 | 1955 | 1950 | 1945 |
| 20 | 0,0                      | 3,6  | 3,6  | 2,4  | 6,2  |
| 25 |                          | 22,4 | 23,8 | 37,1 | 45,0 |
| 30 |                          |      | 60,1 | 74,3 | 83,7 |
| 35 |                          |      |      | 83,2 | 92,2 |
| 40 |                          |      |      |      | 93,0 |

# SLOVENIA

## AGE AT FIRST BIRTH BY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL AT INTERVIEW

Female

Year of interview: 1994

Cumulative percentage of respondents, ISCED 0-2, having first birth by age

| Age group (at) |      |      |      |      |
|----------------|------|------|------|------|
| 25-            | 30-  | 35-  | 40-  |      |
| Birth cohort   |      |      |      |      |
| 66-            | 61-  | 56-  | 51-  |      |
| 20             | 58,5 | 53,7 | 63,2 | 45,6 |
| 25             |      | 88,4 | 94,3 | 90,9 |
| 30             |      |      | 98,3 | 96,1 |
| 35             |      |      |      | 97,0 |
| 40             |      |      |      | 97,6 |

Cumulative percentage of respondents, ISCED 3-4, having first birth by age

| Age group (at) |      |      |      |      |
|----------------|------|------|------|------|
| 25-            | 30-  | 35-  | 40-  |      |
| Birth cohort   |      |      |      |      |
| 66-            | 61-  | 56-  | 51-  |      |
| 20             | 28,4 | 33,8 | 40,4 | 30,7 |
| 25             |      | 80,1 | 82,2 | 82,8 |
| 30             |      |      | 90,9 | 89,8 |
| 35             |      |      |      | 93,9 |
| 40             |      |      |      | 94,6 |

Cumulative percentage of respondents, ISCED 5-6, having first birth by age

| Age group (at) |     |      |      |      |
|----------------|-----|------|------|------|
| 25-            | 30- | 35-  | 40-  |      |
| Birth cohort   |     |      |      |      |
| 66-            | 61- | 56-  | 51-  |      |
| 20             | 6,6 | 14,2 | 16,4 | 16,2 |
| 25             |     | 55,2 | 70,0 | 61,7 |
| 30             |     |      | 91,0 | 94,3 |
| 35             |     |      |      | 97,3 |
| 40             |     |      |      | 98,4 |

Source: United Nations (2001) "Fertility and family surveys in countries of the ECE region: standard country report: Slovenia." ed. by Obersnal, p. 107

| PORTUGAL   |                          |       |       |       |       |       |
|--|--------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| AGE AT FIRST BIRTH BY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL AT INTERVIEW                       |                          |       |       |       |       |       |
| Female sample  |                          |       |       |       |       |       |
| Year of interview: 1992  |                          |       |       |       |       |       |
| Cumulative percentage of respondents, ISCED 0-2, having first birth by age | Age group (at interview) |       |       |       |       |       |
|  | 20-24                    | 25-29 | 30-34 | 35-39 | 40-44 | 45-49 |
|  | Birth cohort (19..)      |       |       |       |       |       |
|  | 72-77                    | 67-72 | 62-67 | 57-62 | 52-57 | 47-52 |
|  |                          |       |       |       |       |       |
|  | 20                       | 27,2  | 30,8  | 34,9  | 37,2  | 25,7  |
|  | 25                       |       | 65,9  | 73,4  | 75,3  | 77,0  |
|  | 30                       |       |       | 88,3  | 88,2  | 88,2  |
|  | 35                       |       |       |       | 90,7  | 91,9  |
|  | 40                       |       |       |       |       | 92,5  |
| Cumulative percentage of respondents, ISCED 3-4, having first birth by age | Age group (at interview) |       |       |       |       |       |
|  | 20-24                    | 25-29 | 30-34 | 35-39 | 40-44 | 45-49 |
|  | Birth cohort (19..)      |       |       |       |       |       |
|  | 72-77                    | 67-72 | 62-67 | 57-62 | 52-57 | 47-52 |
|  |                          |       |       |       |       |       |
|  | 20                       | 3,1   | 5,8   | 10,9  | 14,5  | 16,9  |
|  | 25                       |       | 27,9  | 36,3  | 52,3  | 43,8  |
|  | 30                       |       |       | 68,2  | 73,7  | 74,6  |
|  | 35                       |       |       |       | 80,6  | 82,7  |
|  | 40                       |       |       |       |       | 86,3  |
| Cumulative percentage of respondents, ISCED 5-6, having first birth by age | Age group (at interview) |       |       |       |       |       |
|  | 20-24                    | 25-29 | 30-34 | 35-39 | 40-44 | 45-49 |
|  | Birth cohort (19..)      |       |       |       |       |       |
|  | 72-77                    | 67-72 | 62-67 | 57-62 | 52-57 | 47-52 |
|  |                          |       |       |       |       |       |
|  | 20                       | 1,0   | 0,0   | 1,6   | 4,8   | 7,0   |
|  | 25                       |       | 8,2   | 20,2  | 41,7  | 41,8  |
|  | 30                       |       |       | 56,9  | 69,7  | 73,6  |
|  | 35                       |       |       |       | 77,6  | 86,4  |
|  | 40                       |       |       |       |       | 87,9  |

Source: United Nations (2000) "Fertility and family surveys in countries of the ECE region: standard country report: Portugal." Ed. by Carrilho, p. 10



| SWEDEN   |    |                          |      |      |      |
|--|----|--------------------------|------|------|------|
| AGE AT FIRST BIRTH BY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL AT INTERVIEW                             |    |                          |      |      |      |
| Female sample  |    |                          |      |      |      |
| Year of interview: 1992  |    |                          |      |      |      |
| Cumulative percentage of<br>respondents, ISCED 0-2, having first<br>birth by age |    | Age group (at interview) |      |      |      |
|  |    | 23                       | 28   | 33   | 38   |
|  |    | Birth cohort             |      |      |      |
|  |    | 1969                     | 1964 | 1959 | 1954 |
|  |    | 1949                     |      |      |      |
|  | 20 | 32,4                     | 31,3 | 34,4 | 38,3 |
|  | 25 |                          | 71,6 | 61,1 | 71,3 |
|  | 30 |                          |      | 81,1 | 83,0 |
|  | 35 |                          |      |      | 88,3 |
|  | 40 |                          |      |      | 88,3 |
| Cumulative percentage of<br>respondents, ISCED 3-4, having first<br>birth by age |    | Age group (at interview) |      |      |      |
|  |    | 23                       | 28   | 33   | 38   |
|  |    | Birth cohort             |      |      |      |
|  |    | 1969                     | 1964 | 1959 | 1954 |
|  |    | 1949                     |      |      |      |
|  | 20 | 8,3                      | 12,2 | 18,1 | 21,4 |
|  | 25 |                          | 51,1 | 56,9 | 62,7 |
|  | 30 |                          |      | 79,5 | 80,4 |
|  | 35 |                          |      |      | 87,7 |
|  | 40 |                          |      |      | 89,3 |
| Cumulative percentage of<br>respondents, ISCED 5-6, having first<br>birth by age |    | Age group (at interview) |      |      |      |
|  |    | 23                       | 28   | 33   | 38   |
|  |    | Birth cohort             |      |      |      |
|  |    | 1969                     | 1964 | 1959 | 1954 |
|  |    | 1949                     |      |      |      |
|  | 20 | 1,9                      | 1,3  | 4,4  | 8,1  |
|  | 25 |                          | 25,9 | 23,8 | 35,7 |
|  | 30 |                          |      | 66,3 | 68,0 |
|  | 35 |                          |      |      | 83,1 |
|  | 40 |                          |      |      | 87,1 |

Source: United Nations (2000) "Fertility and family surveys in countries of the ECE region: standard country report: Sweden."

**TABLE 3c : Cumulated fertility by age 27 and after age 27**

| Countries                      | Cumulated Fertility by Age 27 |              |              | Cumulated Fertility after Age 27 |              |
|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------|--------------|----------------------------------|--------------|
|                                | Birth Cohort                  | Birth Cohort | Birth Cohort | Birth Cohort                     | Birth Cohort |
|                                | 1950-1951                     | 1960-1961    | 1970-1971    | 1950-1951                        | 1960-1961    |
| Bulgaria                       | <b>1,602</b>                  | <b>1,546</b> | <b>1,167</b> | <b>0,457</b>                     | <b>0,380</b> |
| England & Wales                | <b>1,151</b>                  | <b>0,911</b> | <b>0,755</b> | <b>0,901</b>                     | <b>1,034</b> |
| Former Yugoslavia <sup>1</sup> | <b>1,447</b>                  | <b>1,416</b> | <b>1,139</b> | <b>0,814</b>                     | <b>0,846</b> |
| France*                        | <b>1,174</b>                  | <b>0,962</b> | <b>0,597</b> | <b>0,935</b>                     | <b>1,132</b> |
| Netherlands*                   | <b>0,914</b>                  | <b>0,563</b> | <b>0,352</b> | <b>0,975</b>                     | <b>1,276</b> |
| Norway                         | <b>1,258</b>                  | <b>0,908</b> | <b>0,743</b> | <b>0,828</b>                     | <b>1,177</b> |
| Portugal                       | <b>1,183</b>                  | <b>1,057</b> | <b>0,678</b> | <b>0,881</b>                     | <b>0,815</b> |
| Sweden                         | <b>1,052</b>                  | <b>0,793</b> | <b>0,665</b> | <b>0,953</b>                     | <b>1,230</b> |

1 There is no figure for the new countries of the former Yugoslavia

\* Birth cohorts 1950 and 1960: fertility cumulated at the end of December following the 27<sup>th</sup> birthday

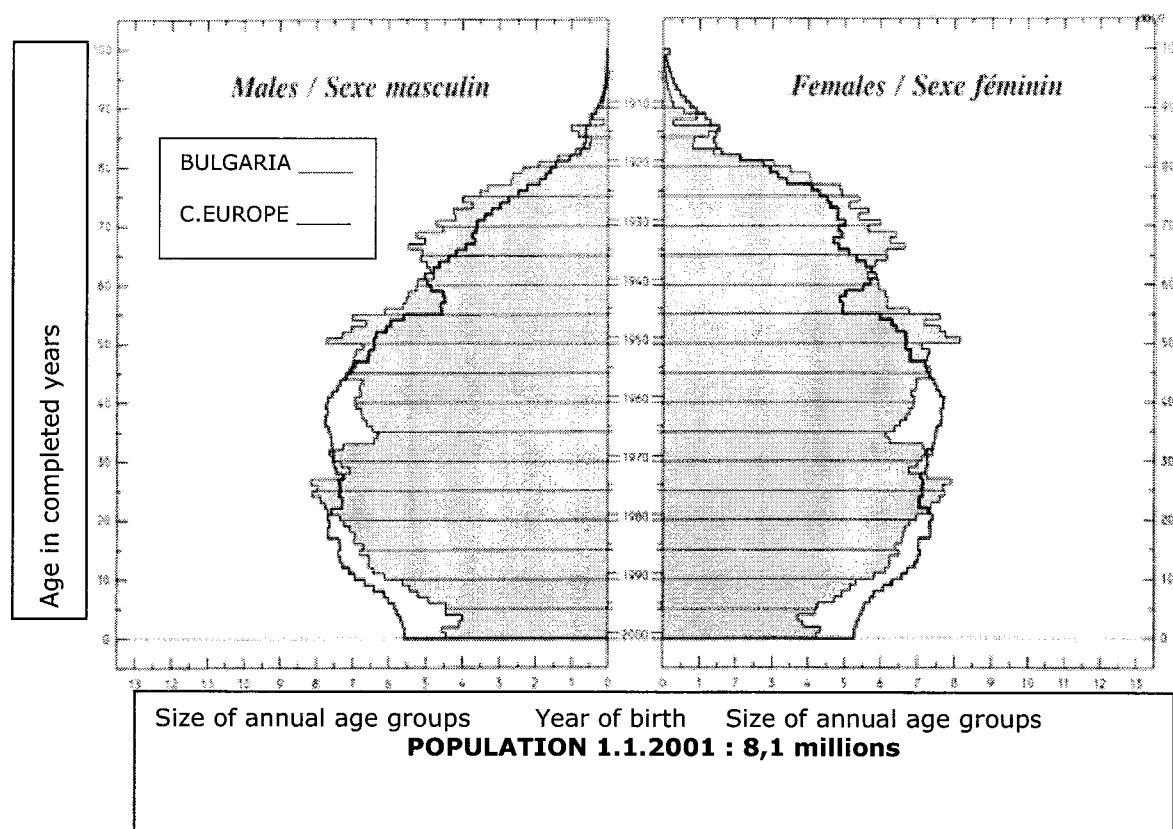
Source: Frejka & Calot (2001) "L'évolution du calendrier des naissances par génération dans les pays à basse fécondité à la fin du XXieme siècle" Population, 56(3), p.405

**FIGURE 3a: Live births, pyramid of age and population density (2000)**

## **BULGARIA**

### **BULGARIA, 2001**

Compared to the 43 member states of the COUNCIL of EUROPE  
Age pyramids on January 1st, 2001, with total population reduced to  
1,000 persons in both cases.



**Live births 2000 : 73679      / Population midyear 2000 : 8.170 millions**

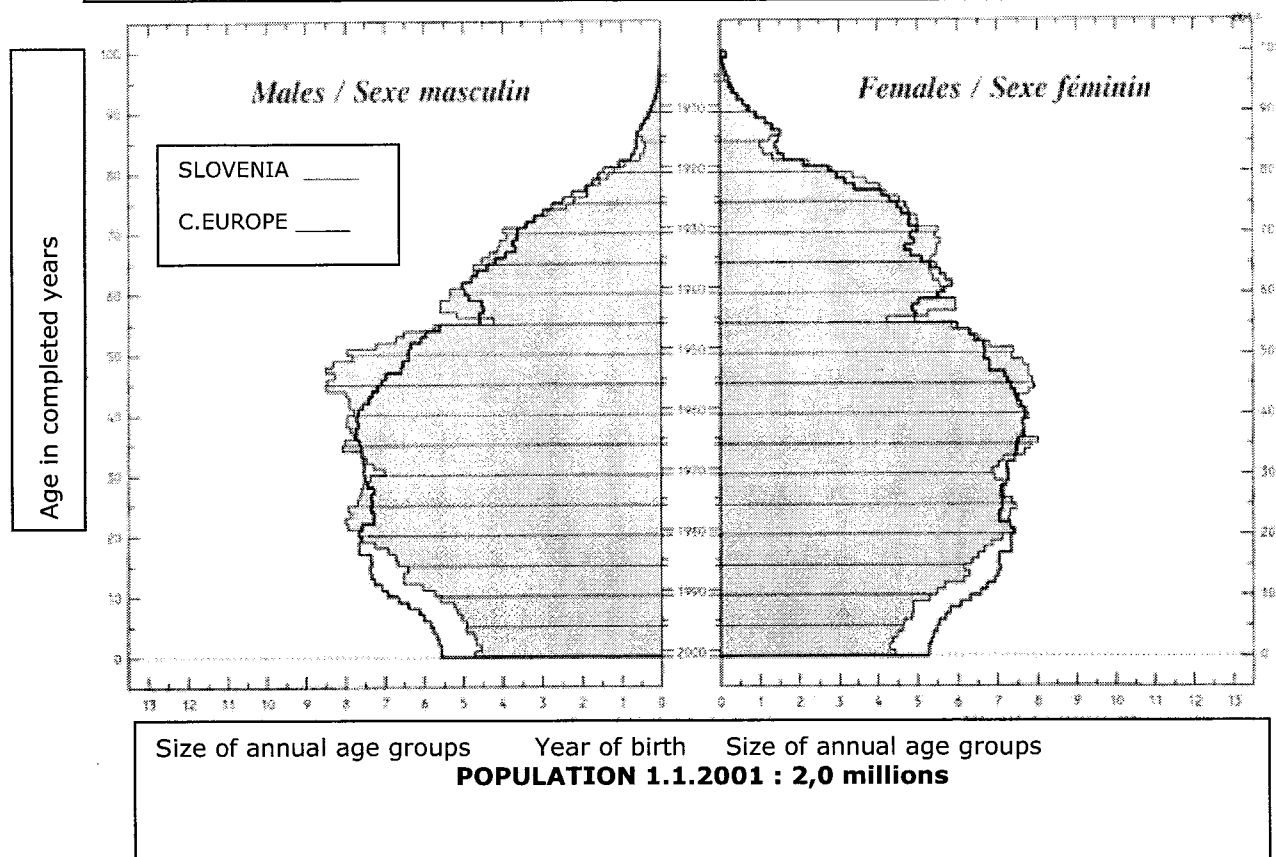
**Ratio females 15-44 to total population : 20.88% (01.01.2001)**

**Population density : 73 pop/km<sup>2</sup>**

## SLOVENIA

### SLOVENIA, 2001

Compared to the 43 member states of the COUNCIL of EUROPE  
Age pyramids on January 1st, 2001, with total population reduced to 1,000 persons in both cases.



**Live births 2000 : 18180 / Population midyear 2000 : 1.989 millions**

**Ratio females 15-44 to total population : 21.95% (01.01.2001)**

**Population density : 98 pop/km<sup>2</sup>**

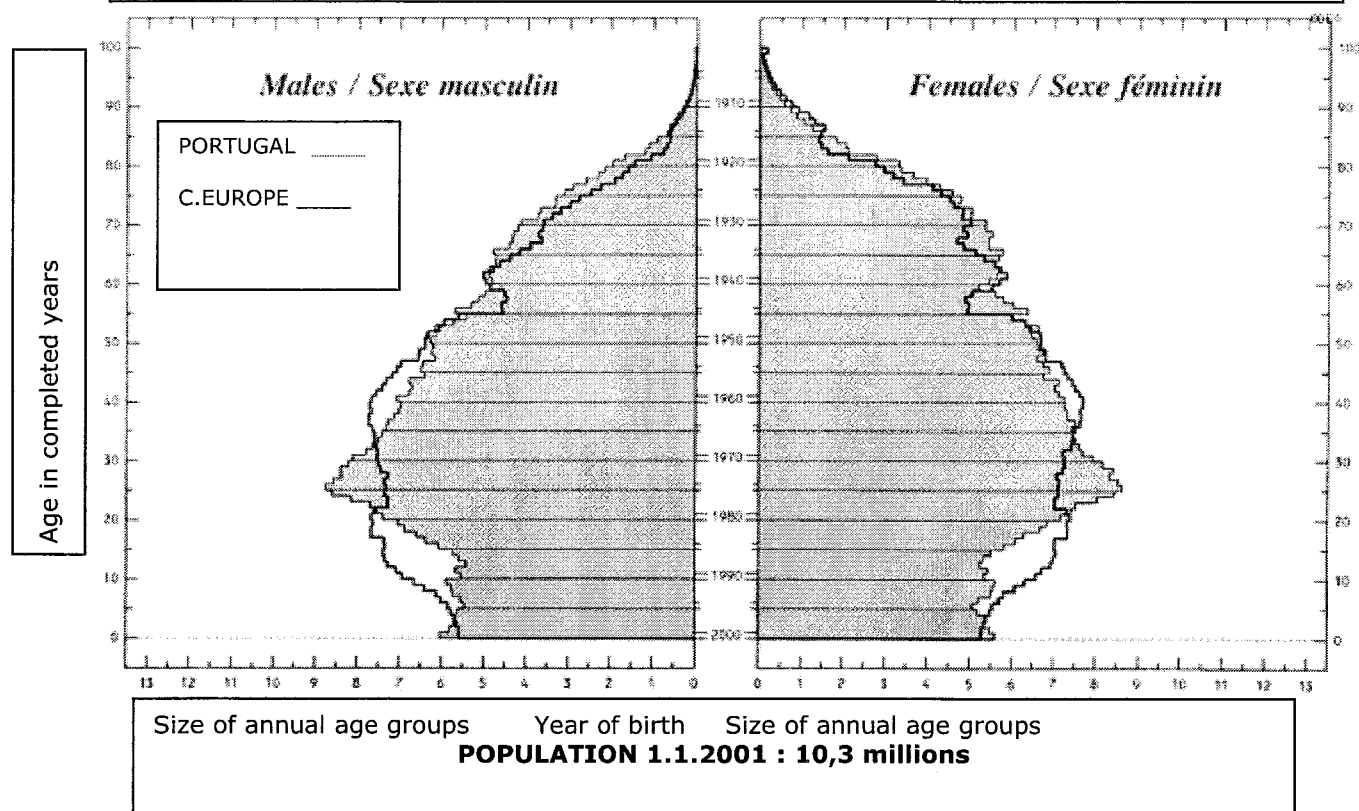
Sources: Council of Europe, Recent demographic developments in Europe 2001.

## PORTUGAL

### PORTUGAL, 2001

Compared to the 43 member states of the COUNCIL of EUROPE

Age pyramids on January 1st, 2001, with total population reduced to 1,000 persons in both cases.



**Live births 2000: 120008 / Population midyear 2000 : 10.235 millions**

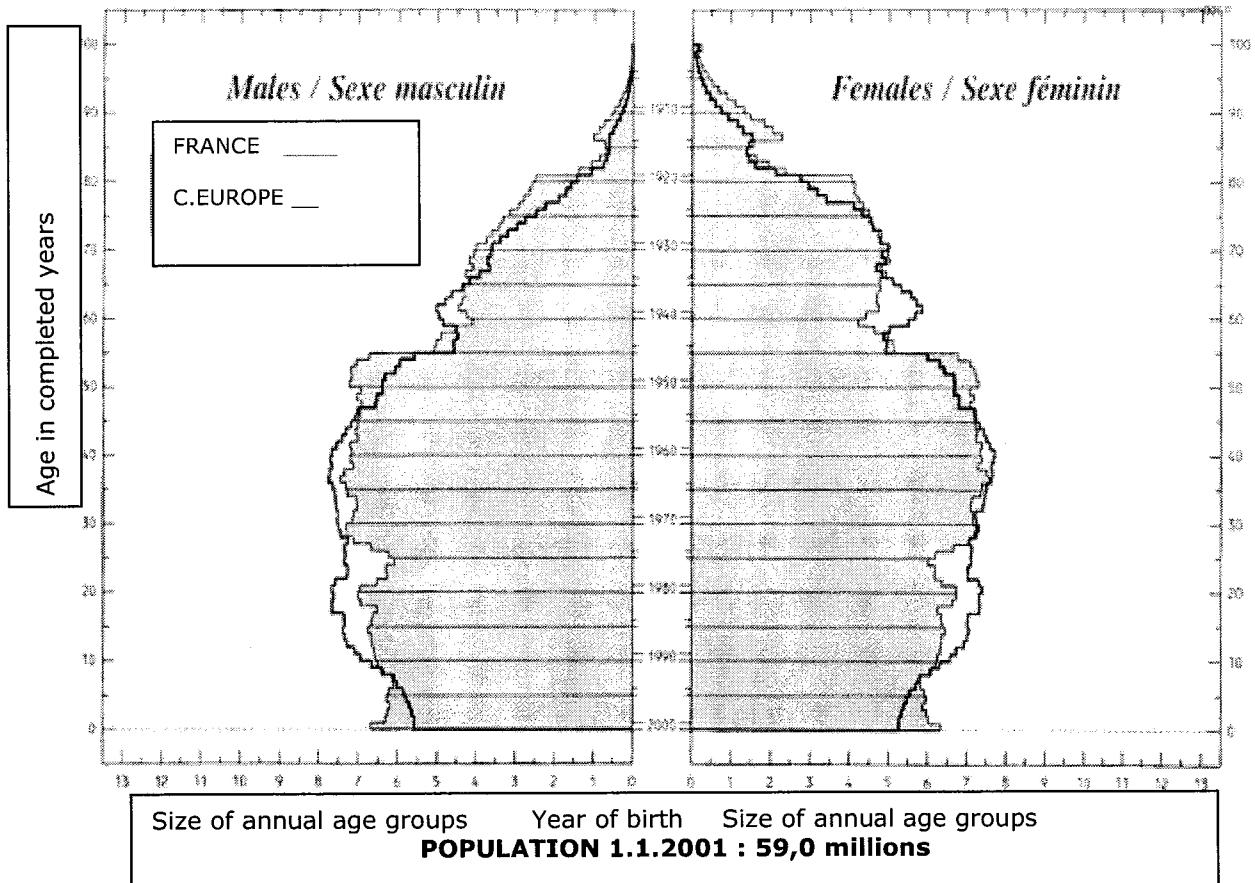
**Ratio females 15-44 to total population : 22.27% (01.01.2001)**

**Population density : 111 pop/km<sup>2</sup>**

## FRANCE

### FRANCE, 2001

Compared to the 43 member states of the COUNCIL of EUROPE  
Age-pyramids on January 1st, 2001, with total population reduced to  
1,000 persons in both cases.



**Live births 2000: 780300 / Population midyear 2000 : 58.892 millions**

**Ratio females 15-44 to total population : 20.79 % (01.01.2001)**

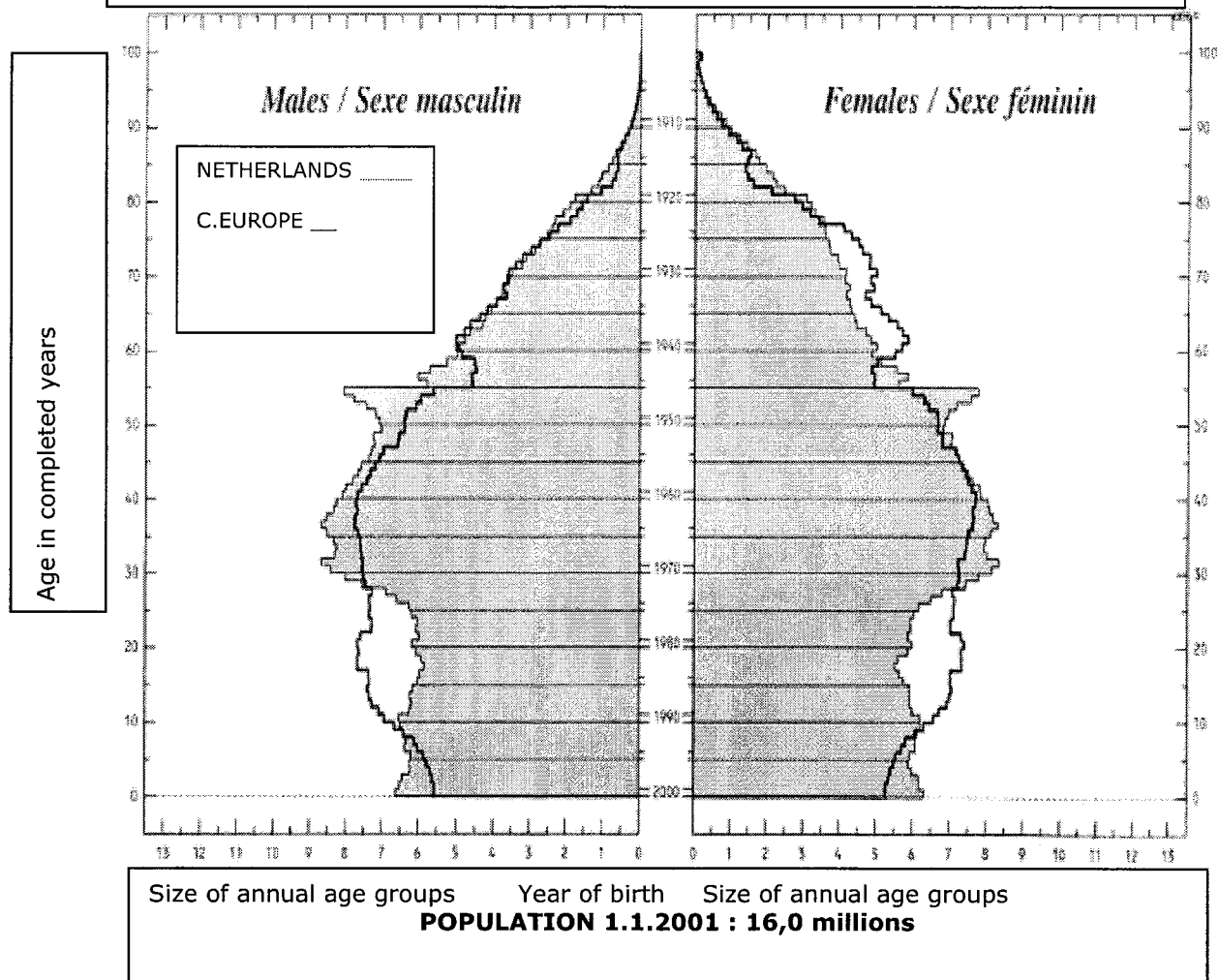
**Population density : 107 pop/km<sup>2</sup>**

Sources: Council of Europe, Recent demographic developments in Europe 2001.

## THE NETHERLANDS

### THE NETHERLANDS, 2001

Compared to the 43 member states of the COUNCIL of EUROPE  
Age-pyramids on January 1st, 2001, with total population reduced to 1,000 persons in both cases.



**Live births 2001 : 206619 / Population midyear 2000 : 15.926 millions**

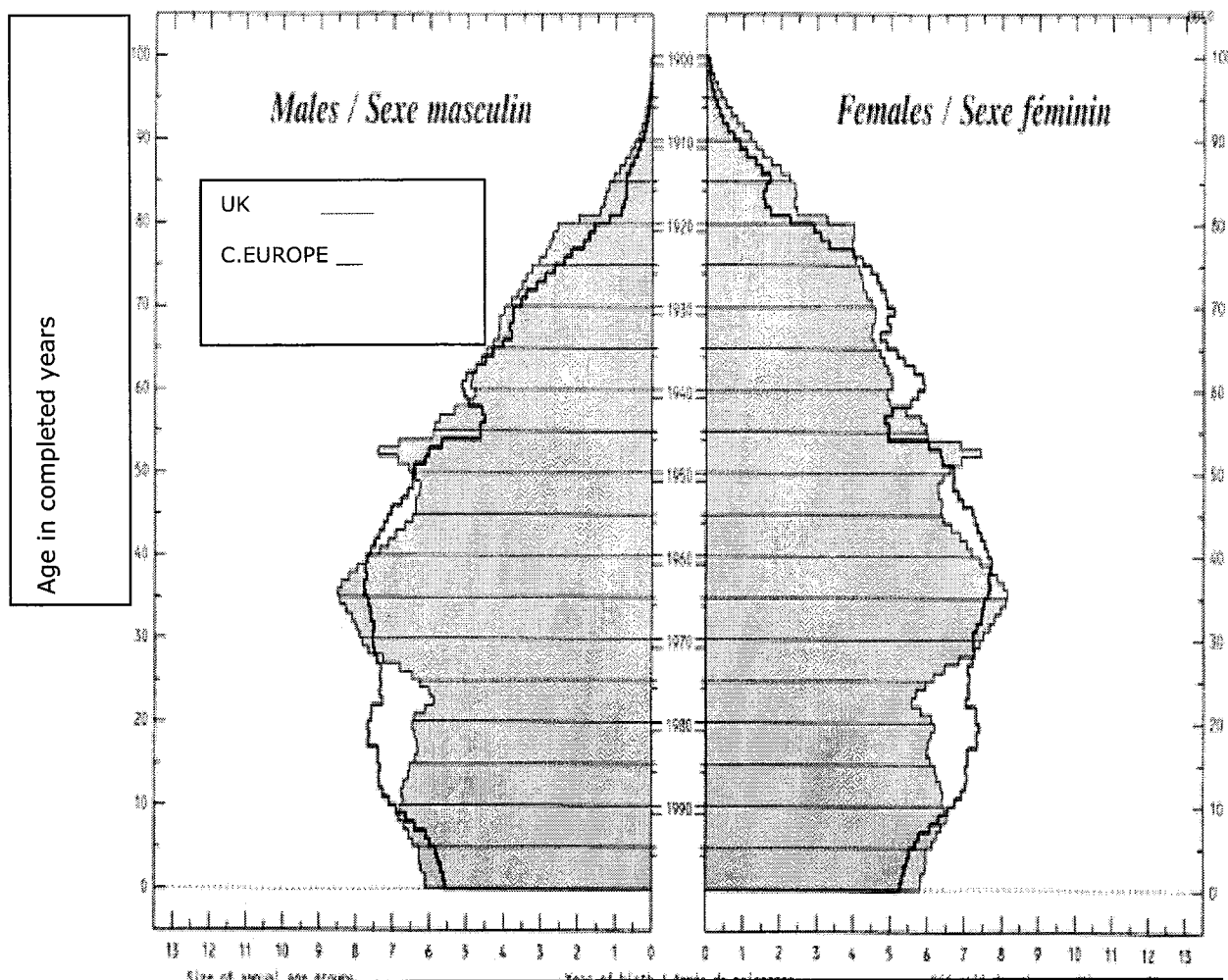
**Ratio females 15-44 to total population : 21.21% (01.01.2001)**

**Population density : 385 pop/km<sup>2</sup>**

## UNITED KINGDOM

### UNITED KINGDOM, 2001

Compared to the 43 member states of the COUNCIL of EUROPE  
Age-pyramids on January 1st, 2001, with total population reduced to  
1,000 persons in both cases.



Size of annual age groups      Year of birth      Size of annual age groups  
**POPULATION 1.1.2001 : 59,6 millions**

**Live births 2000 : 679029 / Population midyear 2000 : 59.665 millions**

**Ratio females 15-44 to total population : 20.59% (01.01.2001)**

**Population density : 247 pop/km<sup>2</sup>**

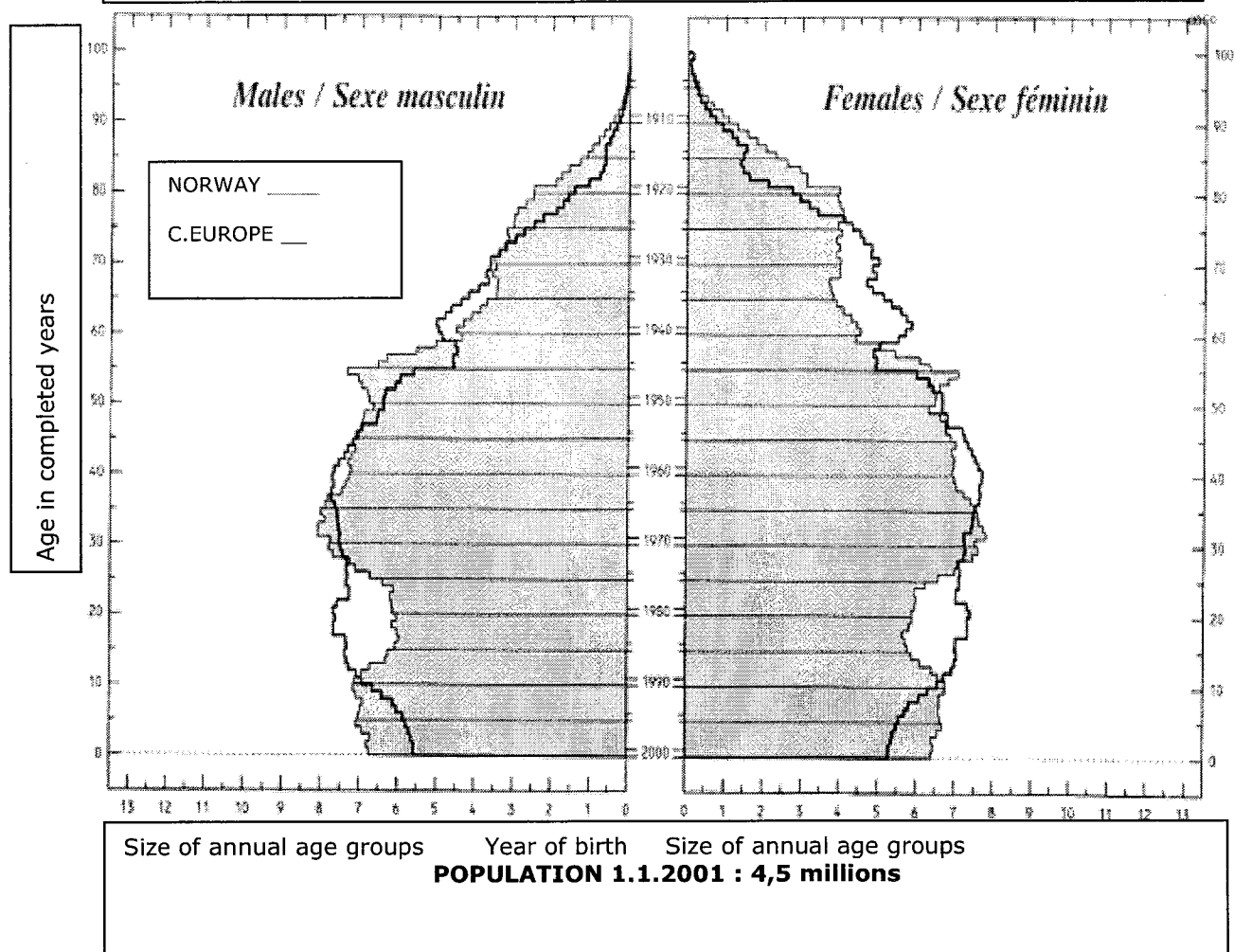
Sources: Council of Europe, Recent demographic developments in Europe 2001 for live births.



## NORWAY

### NORWAY, 2001

Compared to the 43 member states of the COUNCIL of EUROPE  
Age-pyramids on January 1st, 2001, with total population reduced to 1,000 persons in both cases.

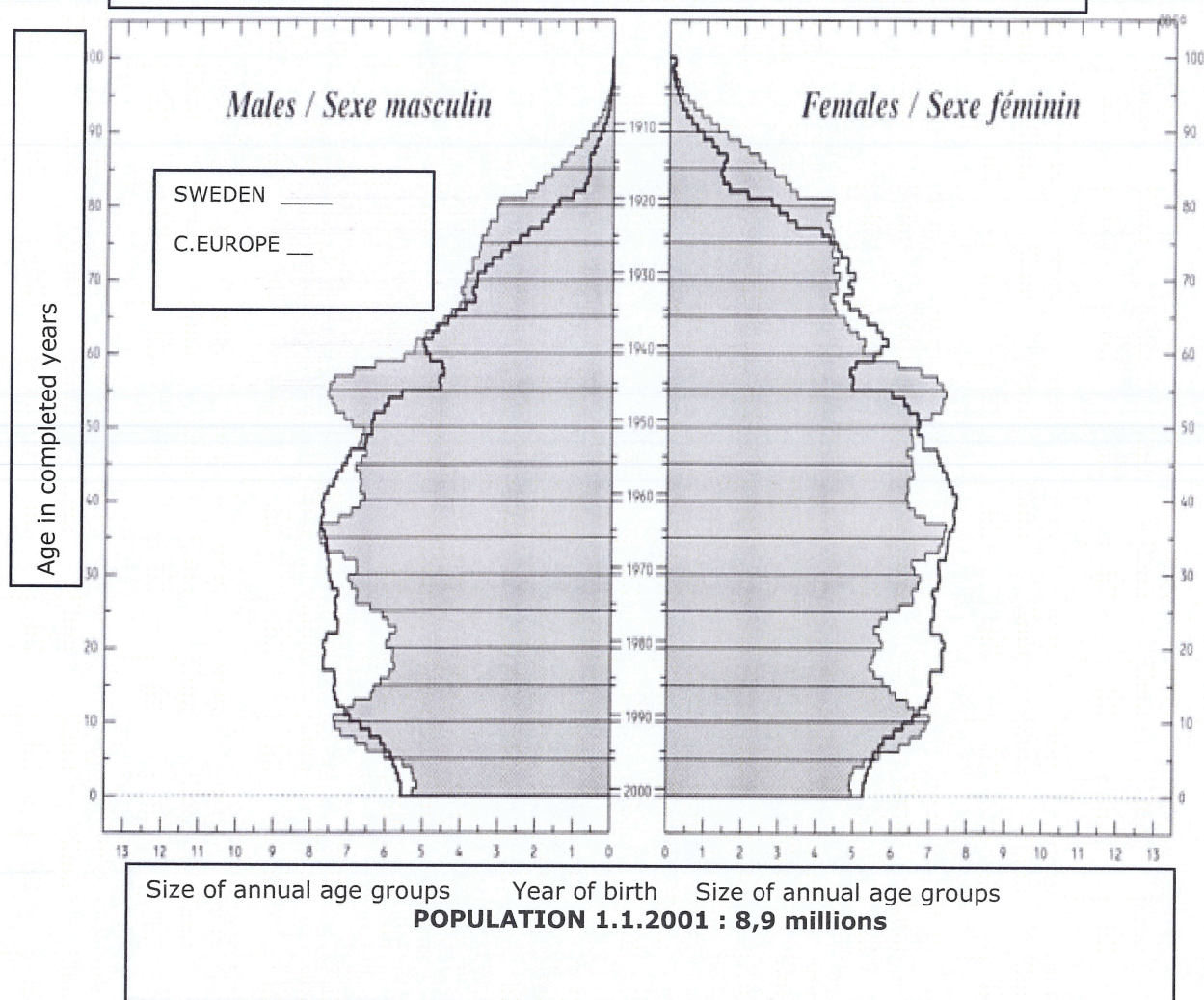


**Live births 2000 : 59234 / Population midyear 2000 : 4.491 millions**  
**Ratio females 15-44 to total population : 20.37%**  
**(01.01.2001)**  
**Population density : 14 pop/km<sup>2</sup>**

## SWEDEN

### SWEDEN, 2001

Compared to the 43 member states of the COUNCIL of EUROPE  
Age-pyramids on January 1st, 2001, with total population reduced to  
1,000 persons in both cases.



**Live births 2000 : 90441 / Population midyear 2000 : 8.872 millions**

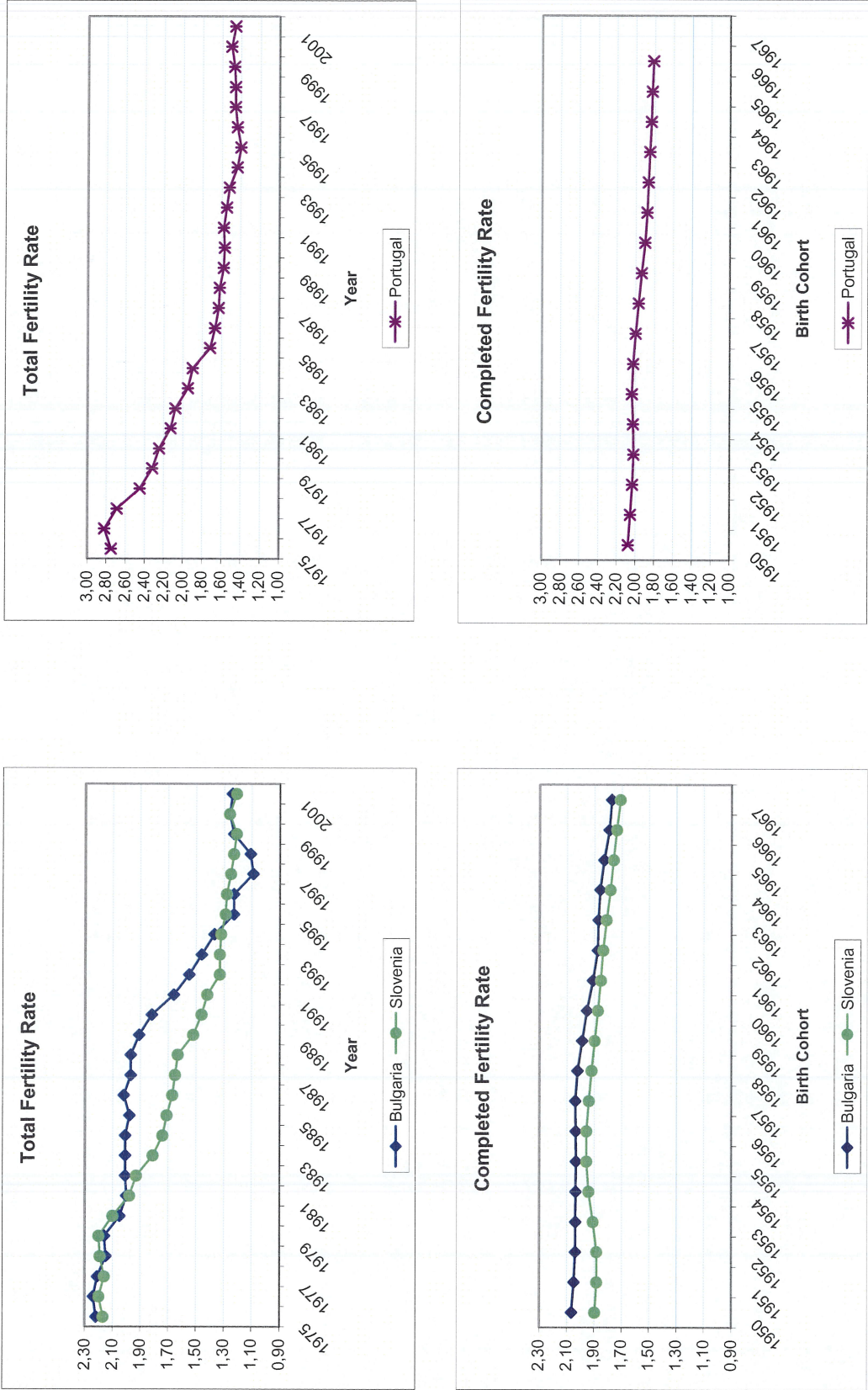
**Ratio females 15-44 to total population : 19.07% (01.01.2001)**

**Population density : 20 pop/km<sup>2</sup>**

Sources: Council of Europe, Recent demographic developments in Europe 2001.

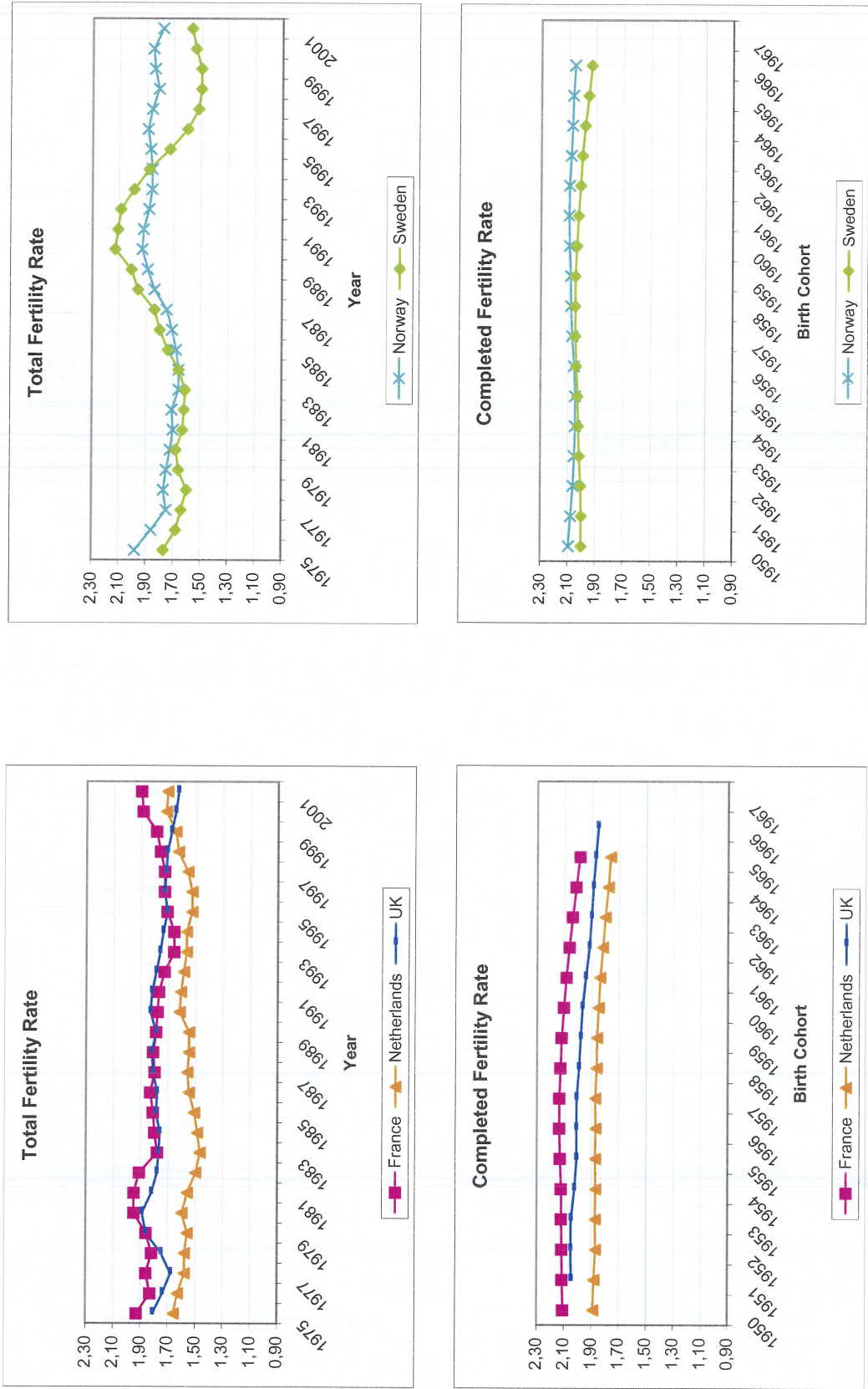


FIGURE 3b: Total fertility rate and completed fertility rate



Source: Recent demographic developments in Europe 2001, Council of Europe.

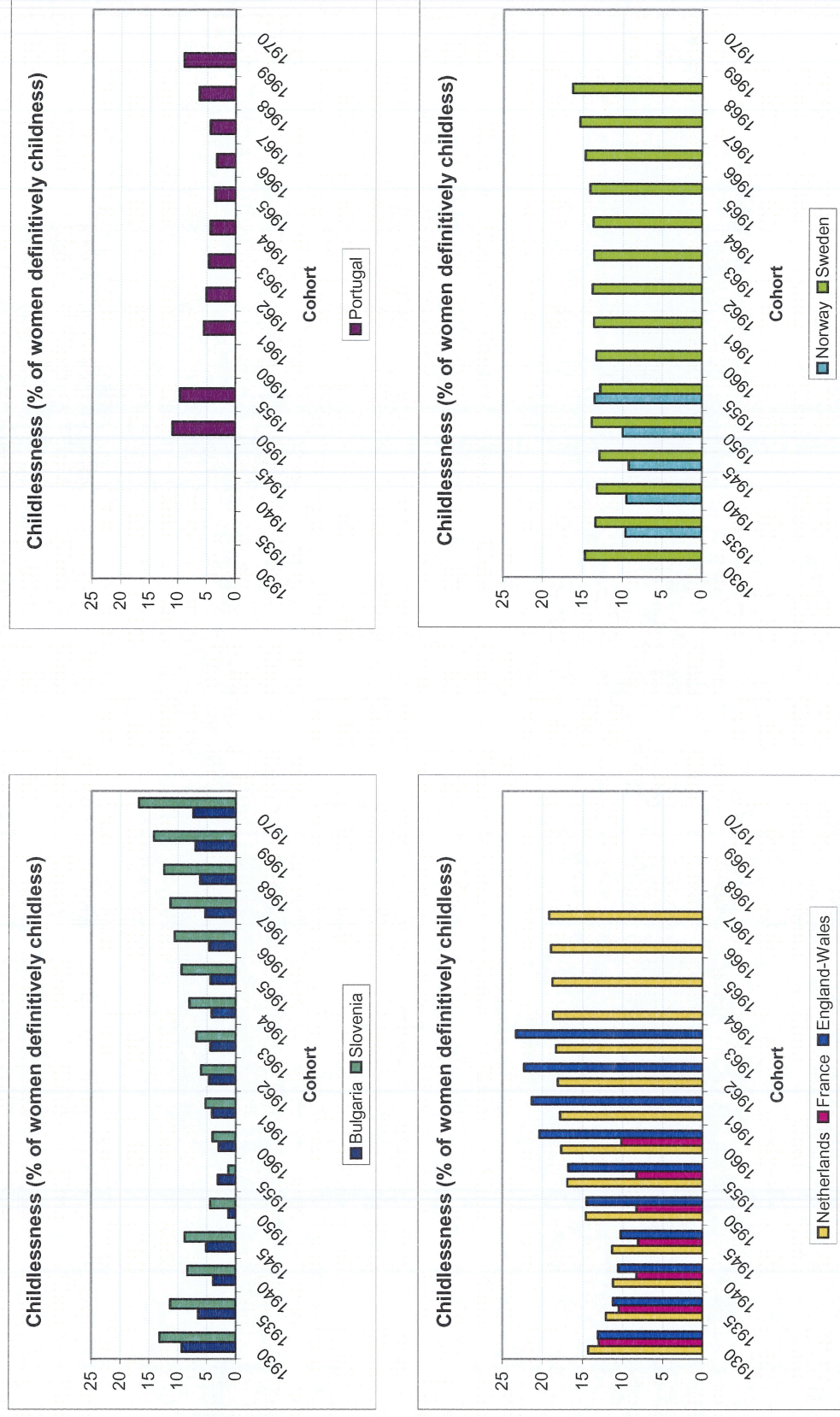
FIGURE 3b: Total fertility rate and completed fertility rate (continued)



Source: Recent demographic developments in Europe 2001, Council of Europe.

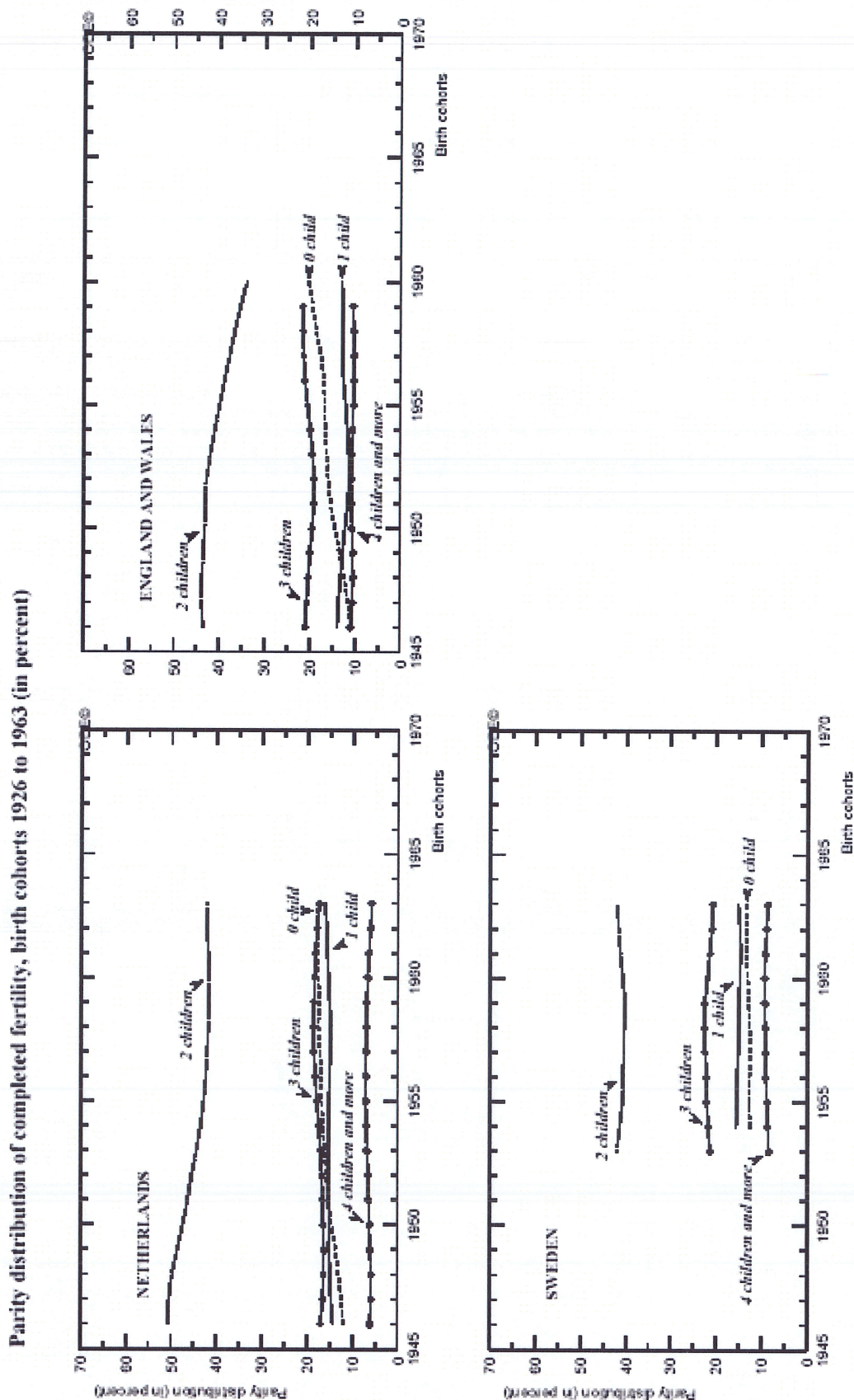


**FIGURE 3c: Childlessness (proportion of women childless by birth cohort)**



Source: figures elaborated from data taken in Sardon, J.P. (2002) "Evolution démographique récente des pays développés", Population, vol.57,n°1, p.156-157.

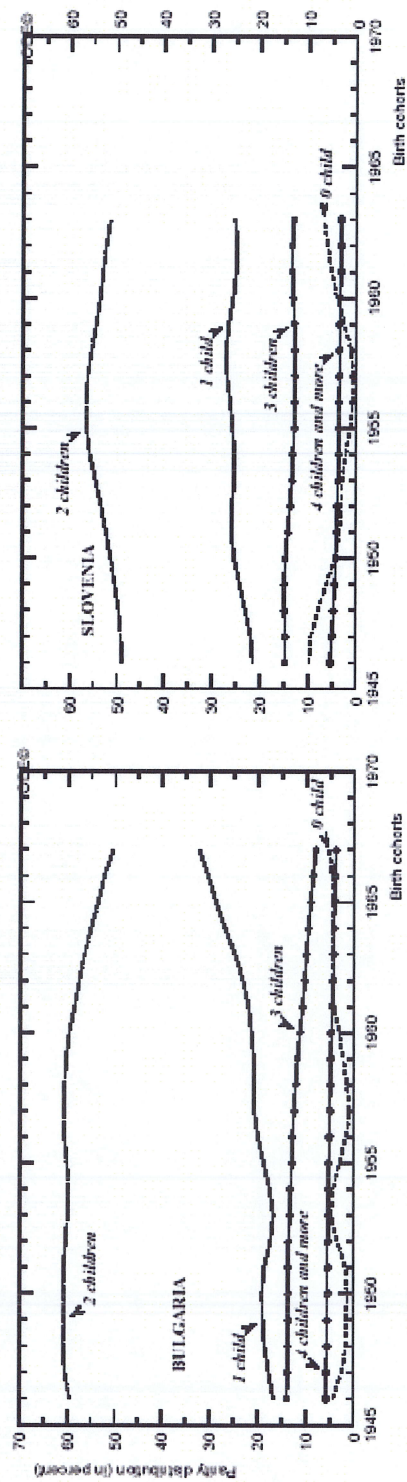
FIGURE 3d: Parity distribution of completed fertility



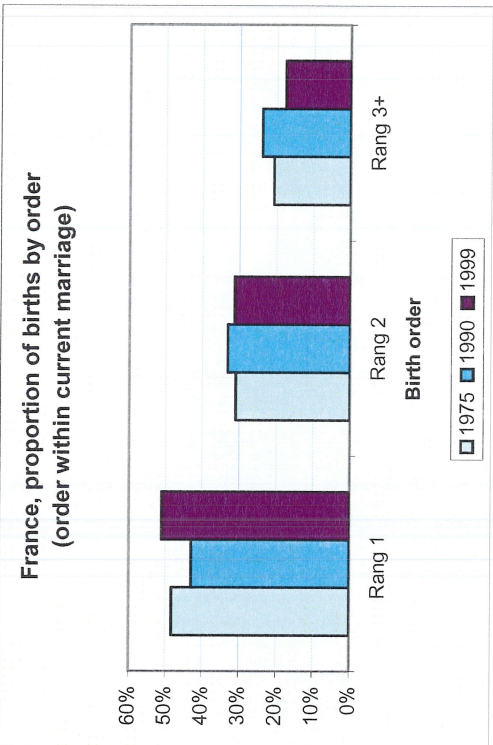
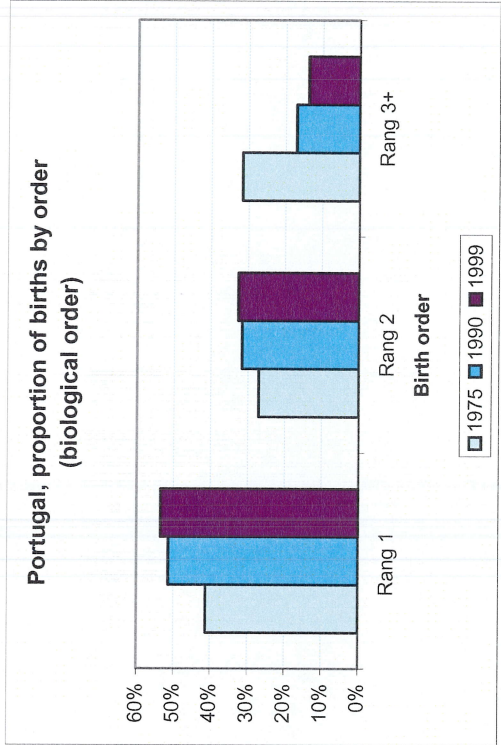
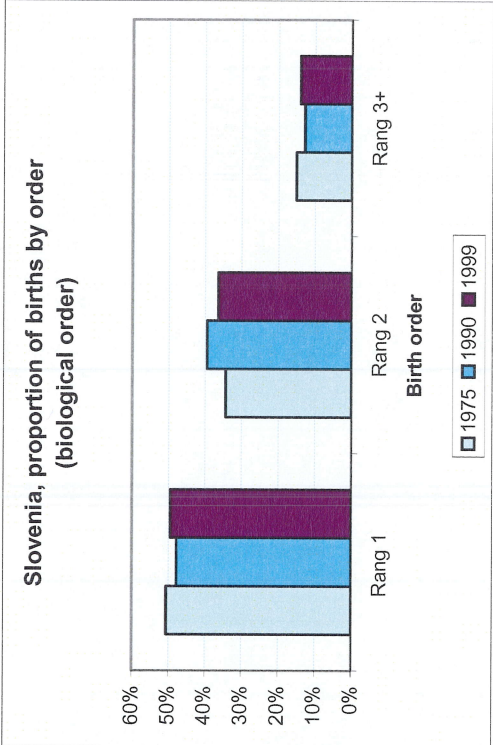
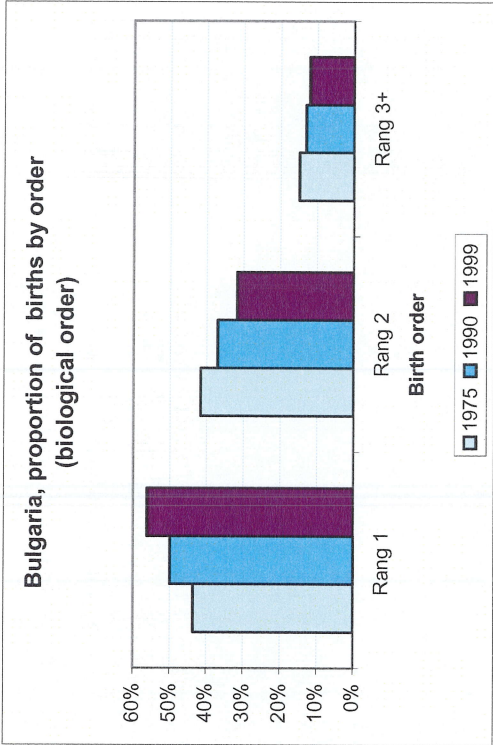


**FIGURE 3d: Parity distribution of completed fertility (continued)**

Parity distribution of completed fertility, birth cohorts 1946 to 1963 (in percent)



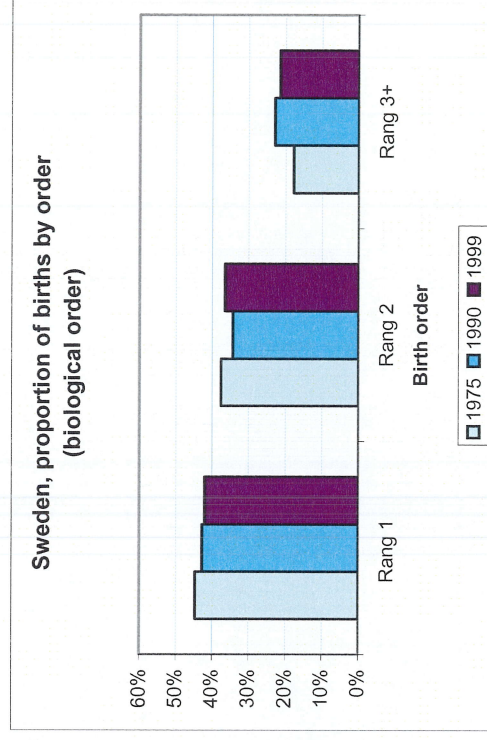
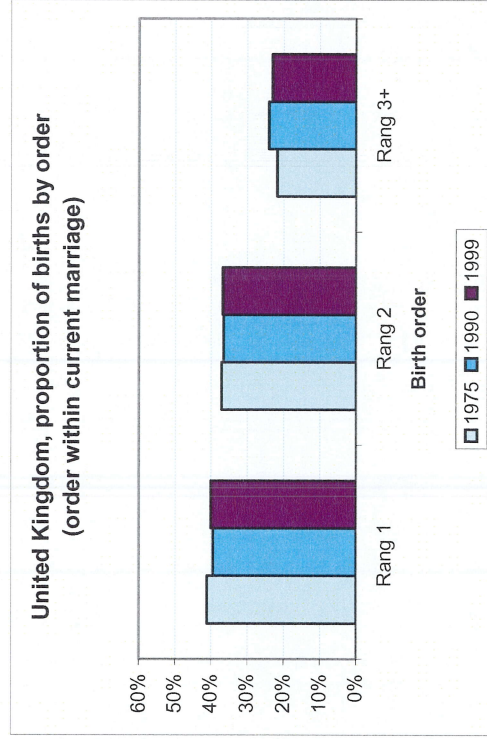
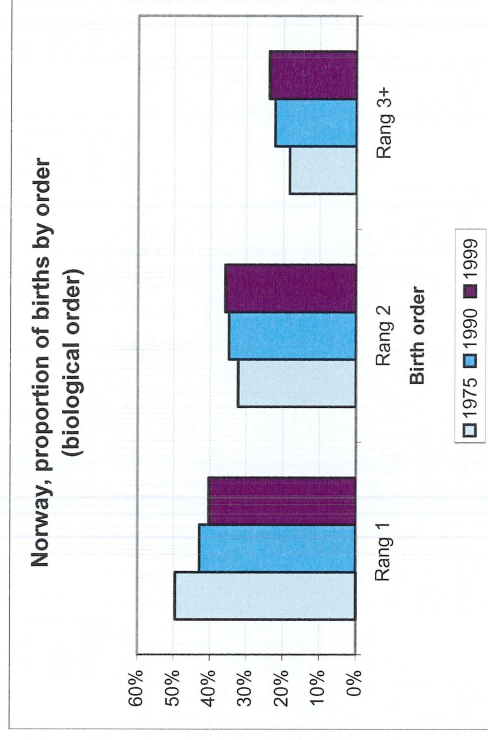
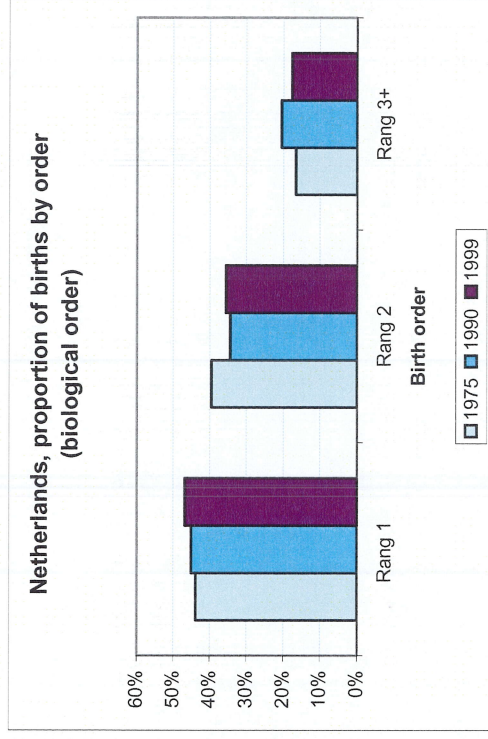
**FIGURE 3e: Proportion of birth by order**



Source: Recent demographic developments in Europe 2001, Council of Europe.

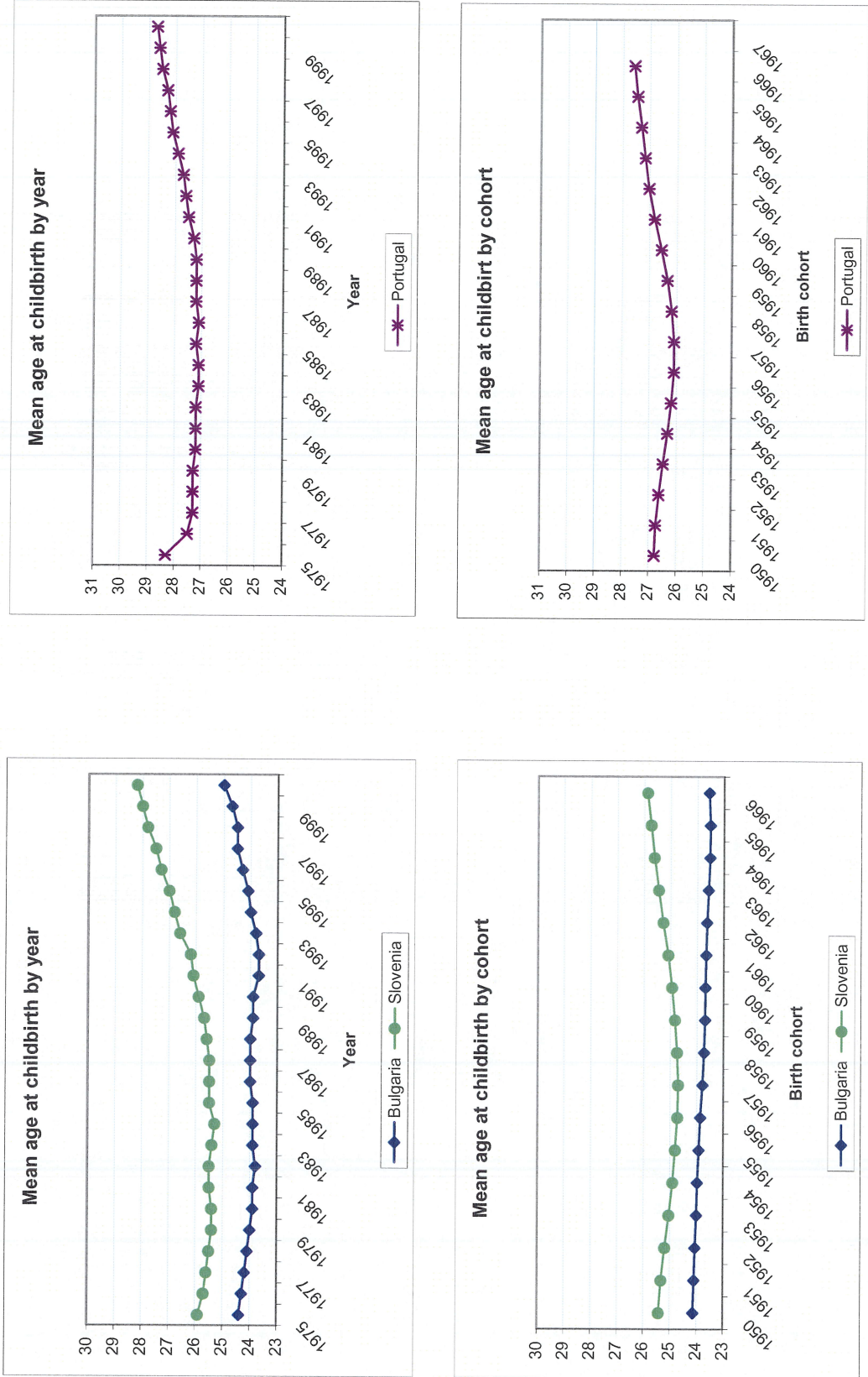


**FIGURE 3e: Proportion of birth by order (continued)**



Source: Recent demographic developments in Europe 2001, Council of Europe.

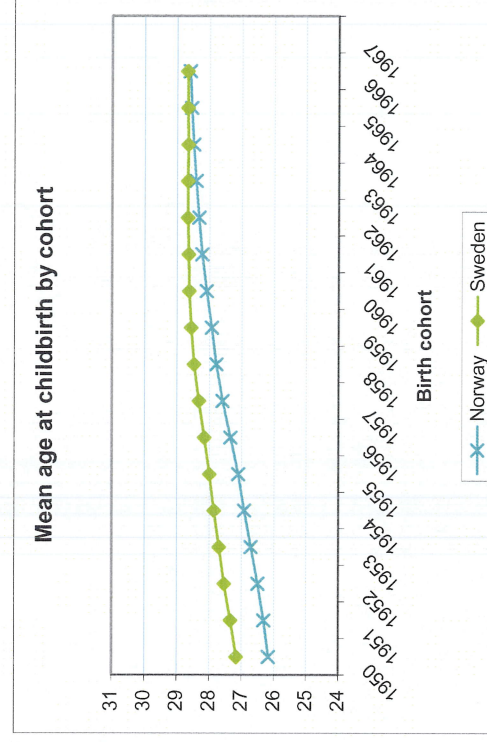
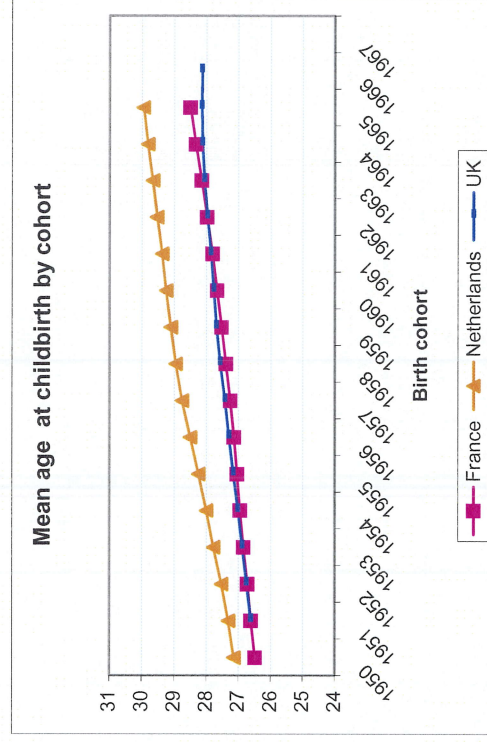
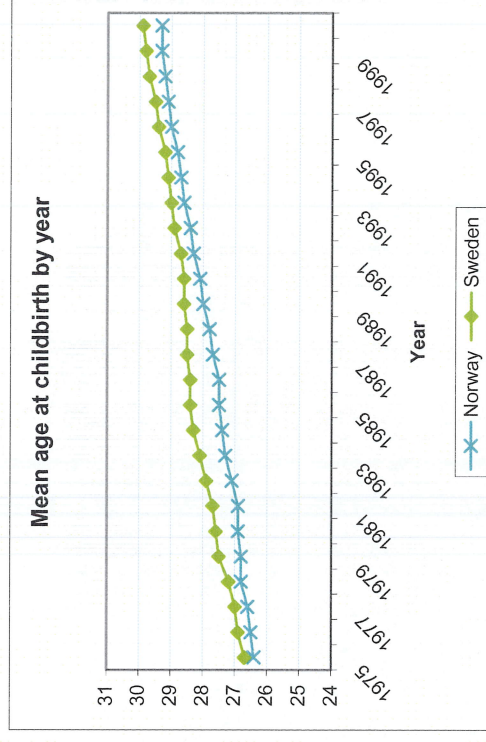
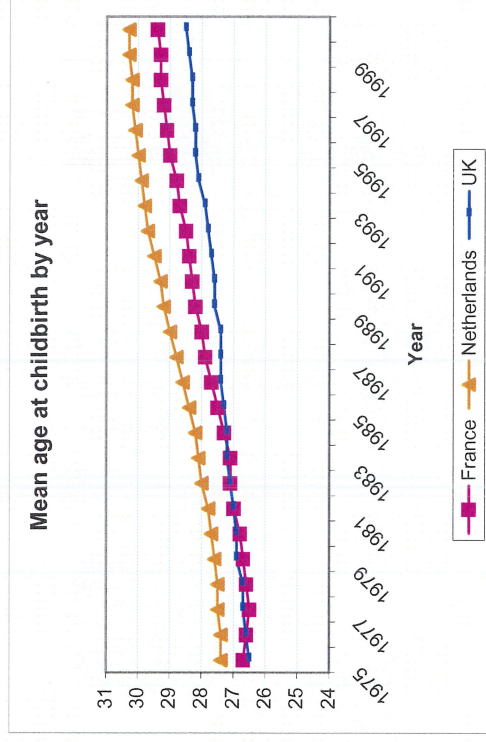
FIGURE 3f: Women's mean age at childbirth by year and by cohort



Source: Recent demographic developments in Europe 2001, Council of Europe.

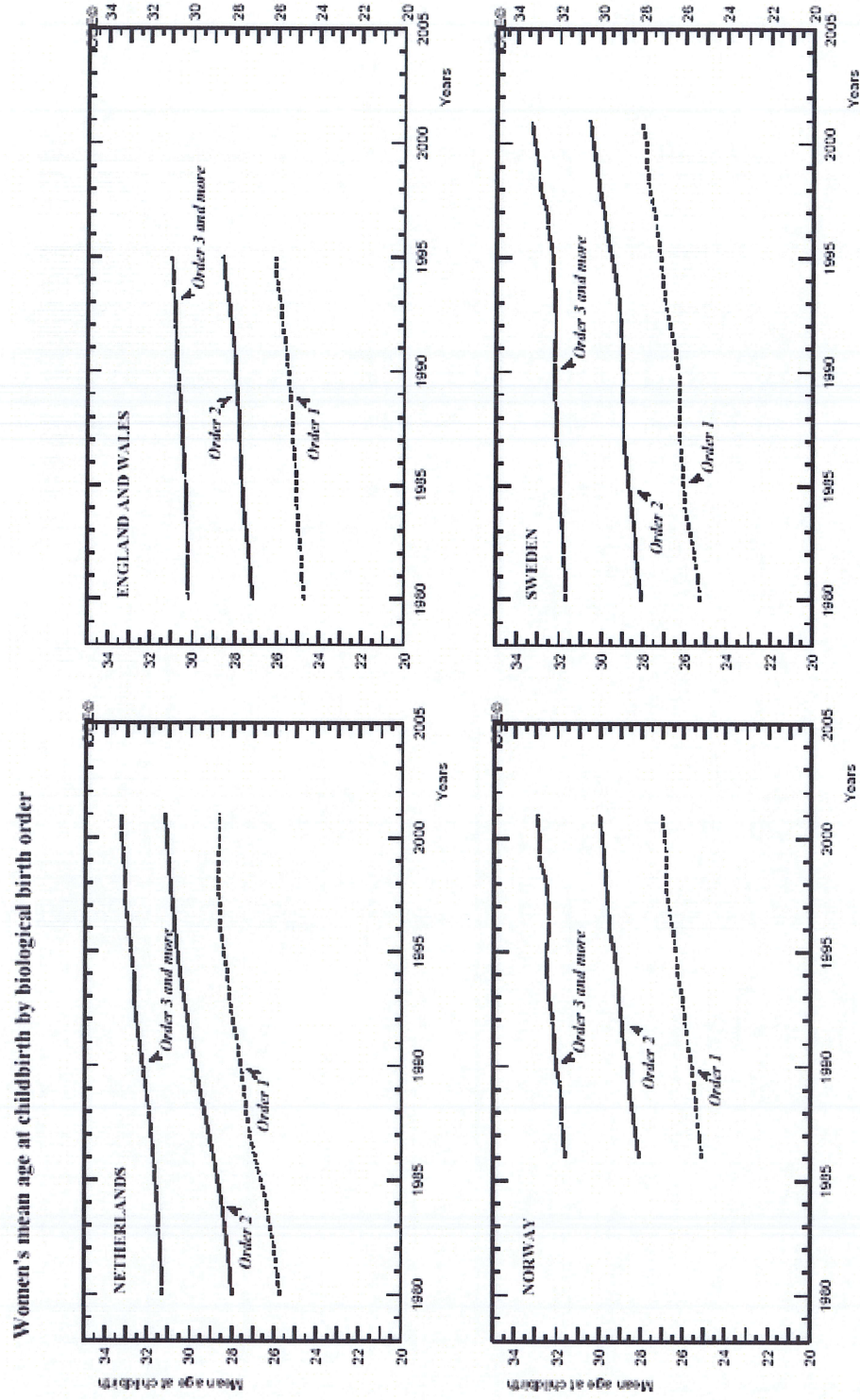


**FIGURE 3f: Women's mean age at childbirth by year and by cohort (continued)**



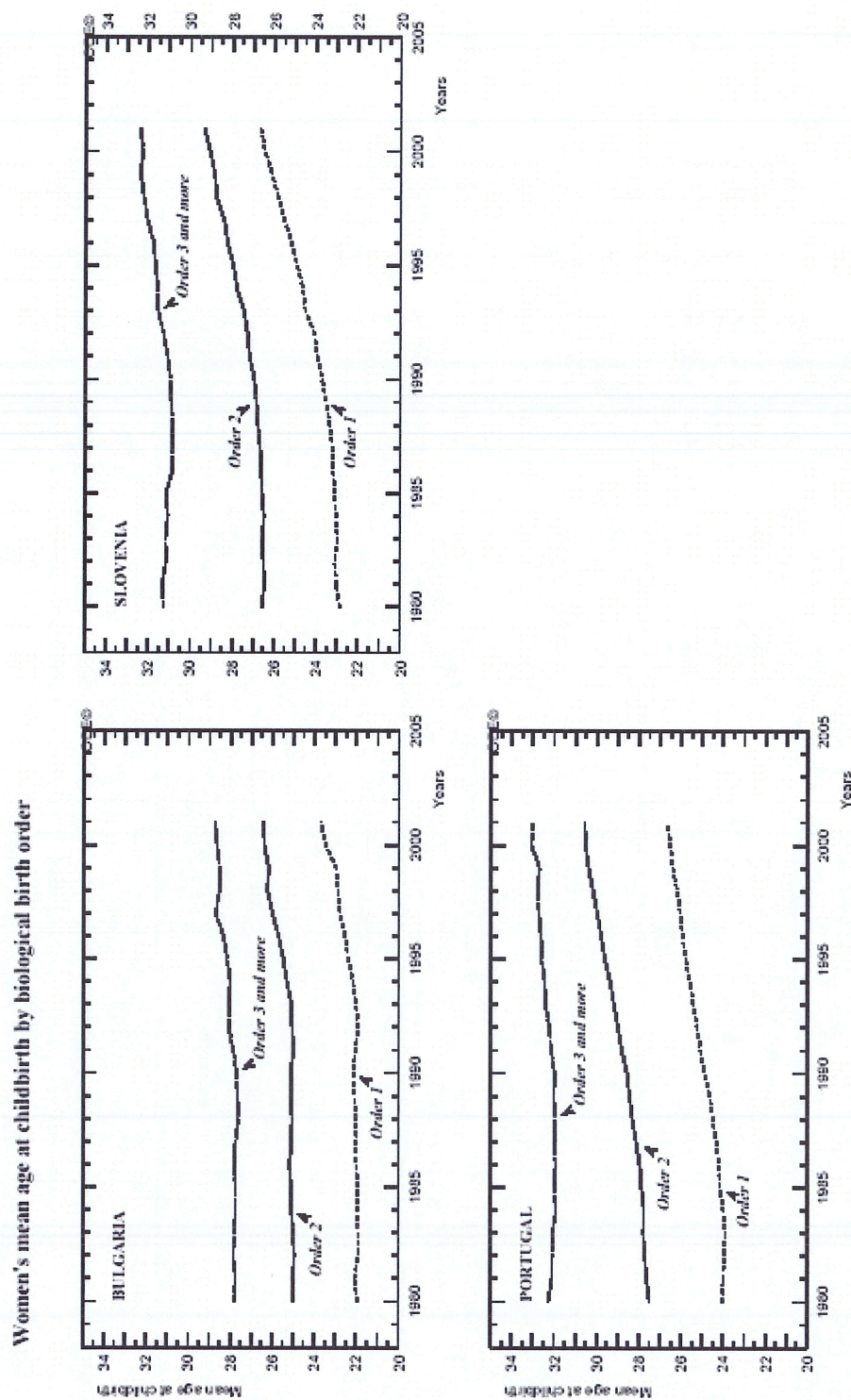
Source: Recent demographic developments in Europe 2001, Council of Europe.

**FIGURE 3g: Women's mean age at childbirth by biological birth order**

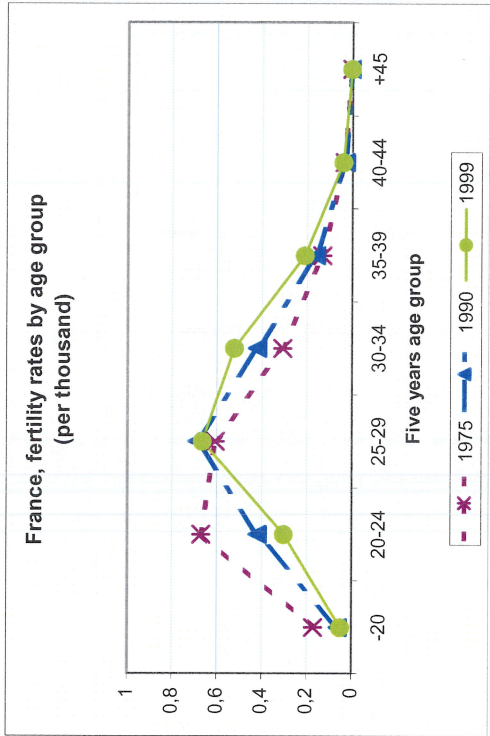
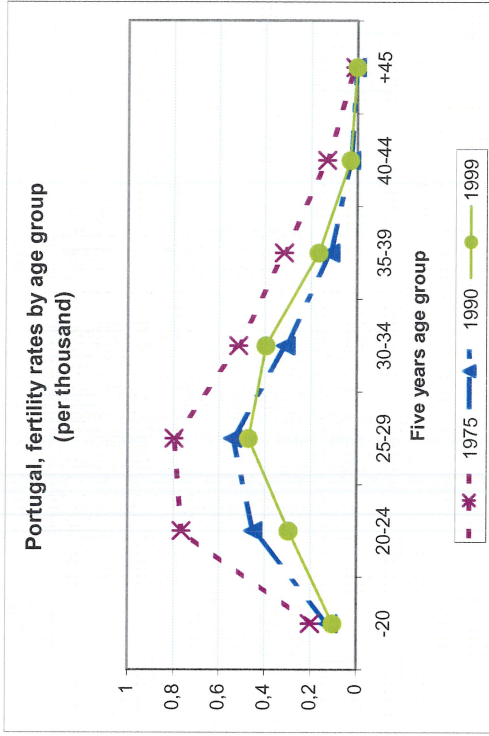
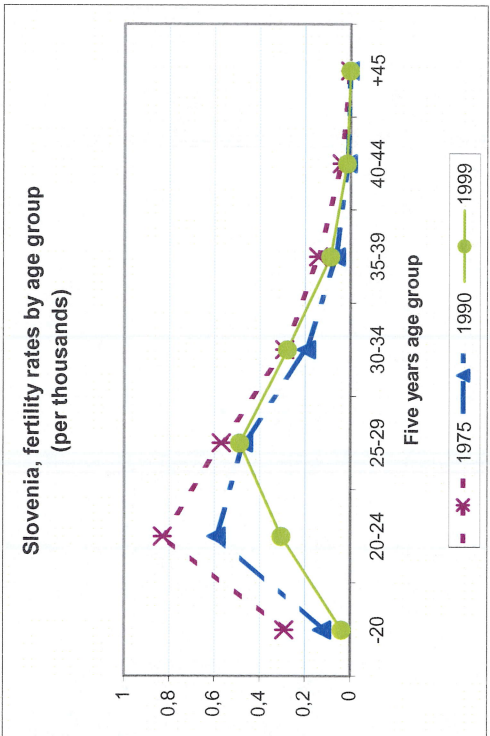
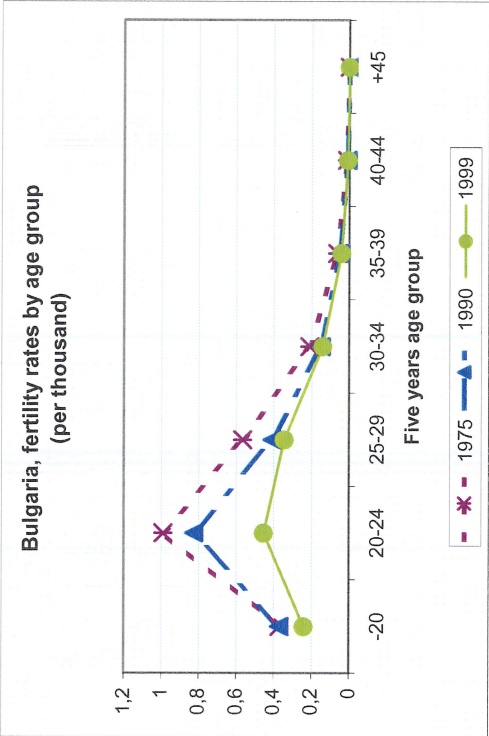




**FIGURE 3g: Women's mean age at childbirth by biological birth order (continued)**



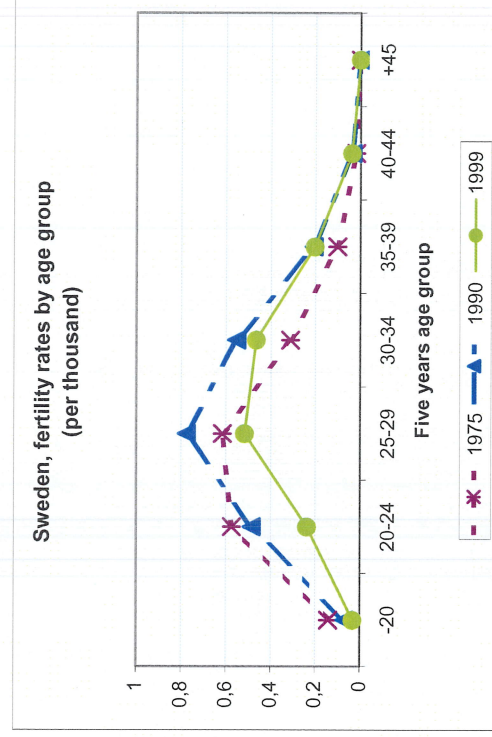
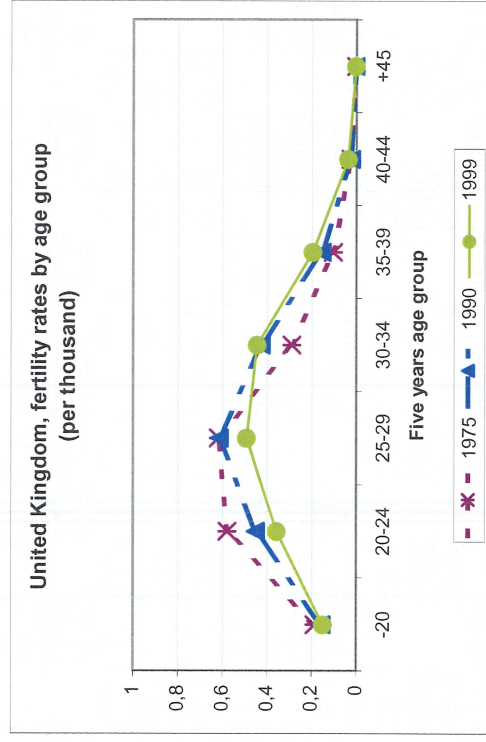
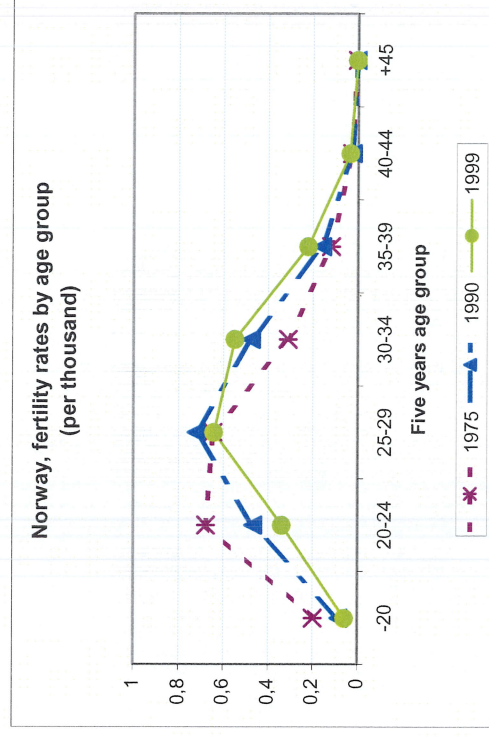
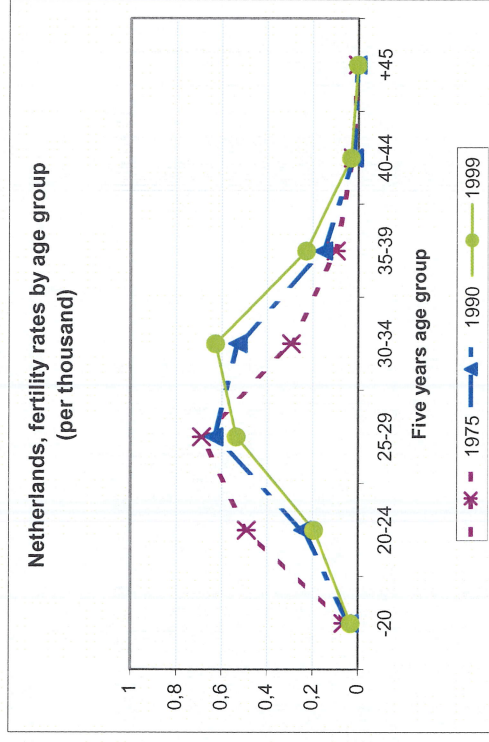
**FIGURE 3h: Fertility rates by age group**



Source: Recent demographic developments in Europe 2001, Council of Europe.

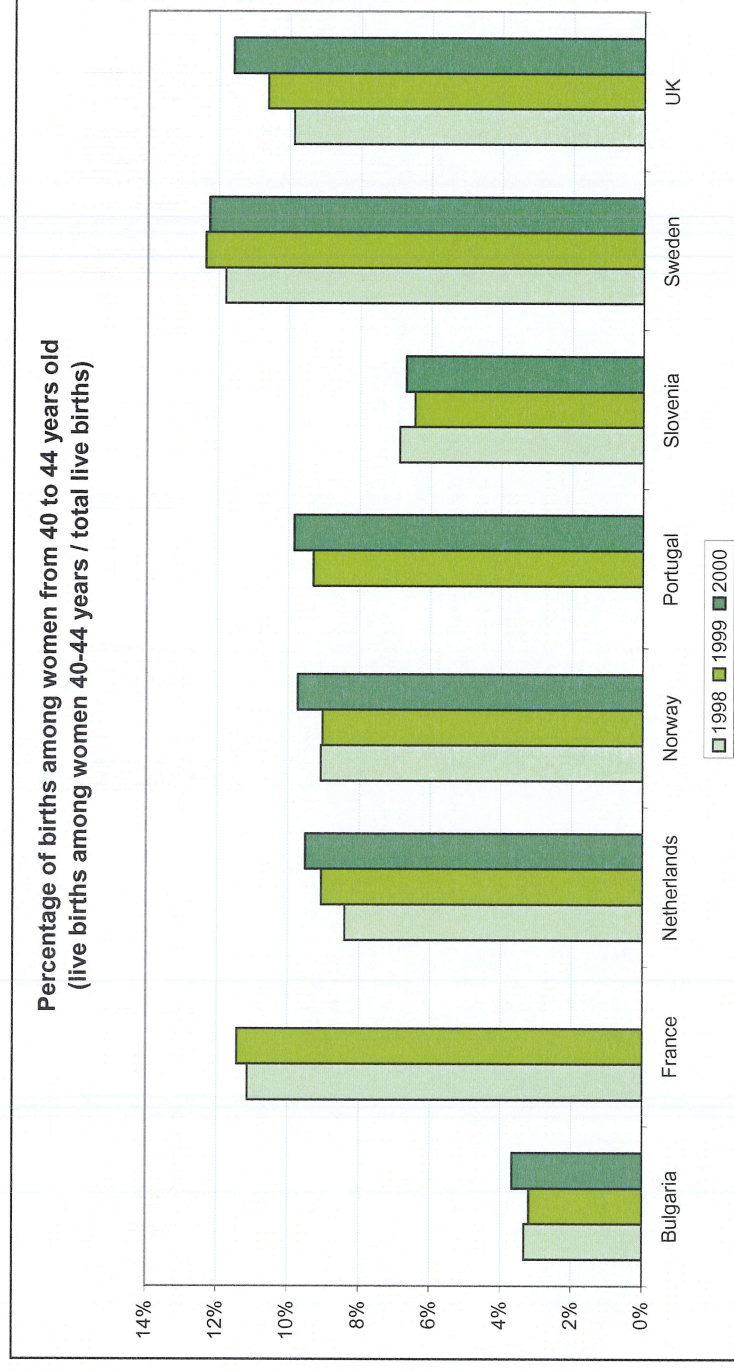


**FIGURE 3h: Fertility rates by age group (continued)**



Source: Recent demographic developments in Europe 2001, Council of Europe.

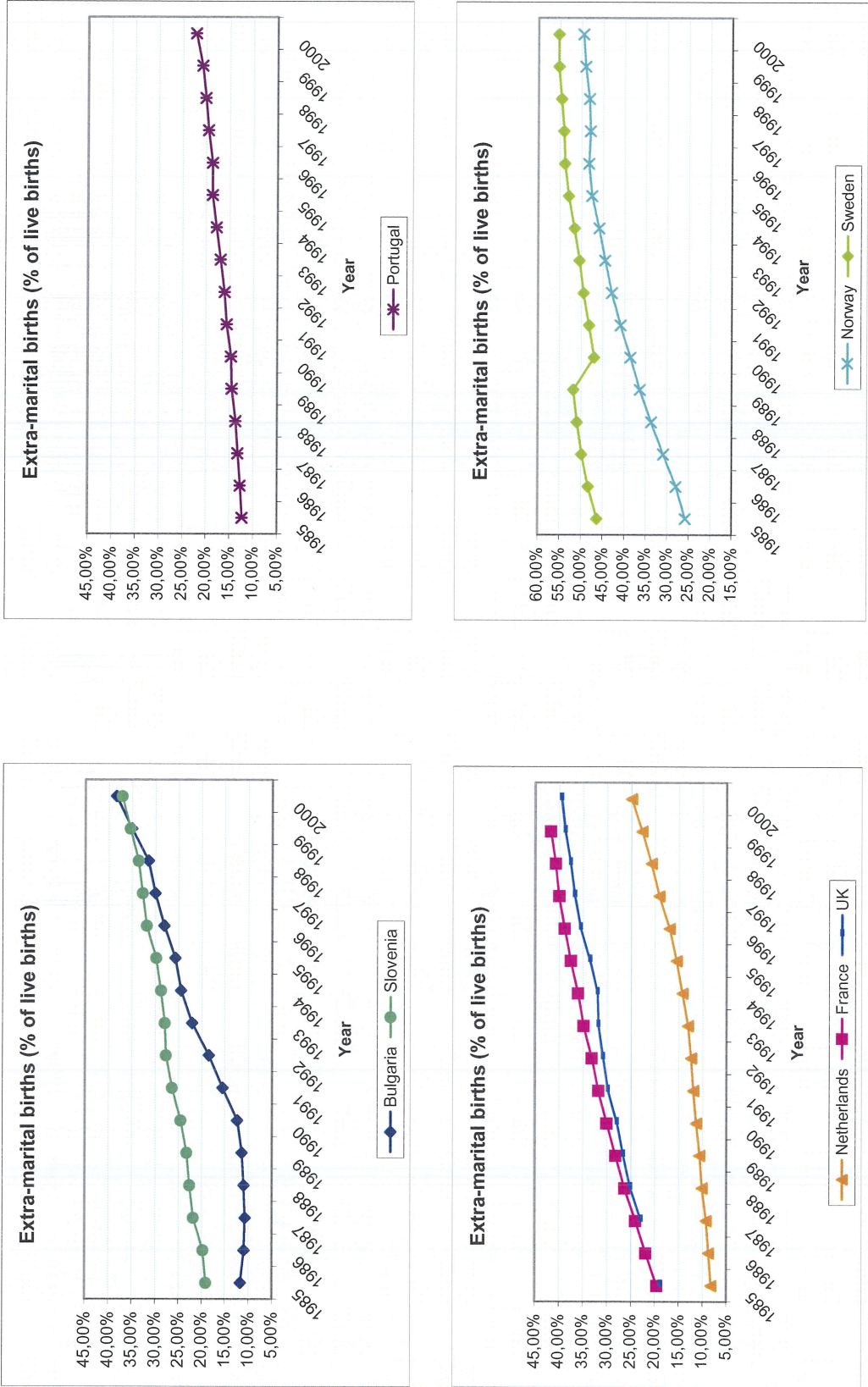
**FIGURE 3i: Percentage of births among women from 40 to 44 years old**



Source: Data calculated from Council of Europe data (Recent demographic developments in Europe 2001)

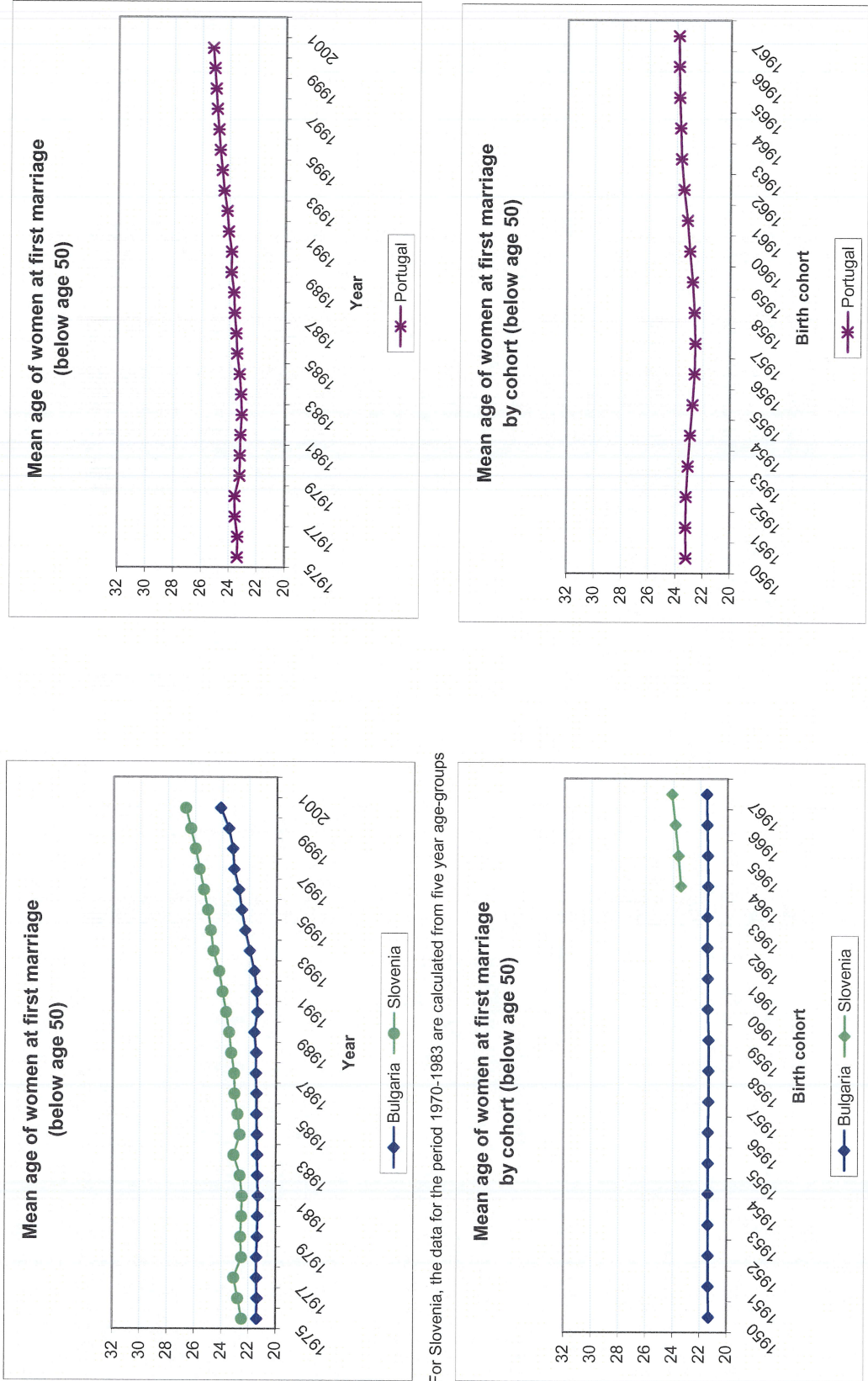


FIGURE 3j: Extra-marital births (% of live births)



Source: Recent demographic developments in Europe 2001, Council of Europe.

**FIGURE 3k: Mean age of women at first marriage (below age 50)**

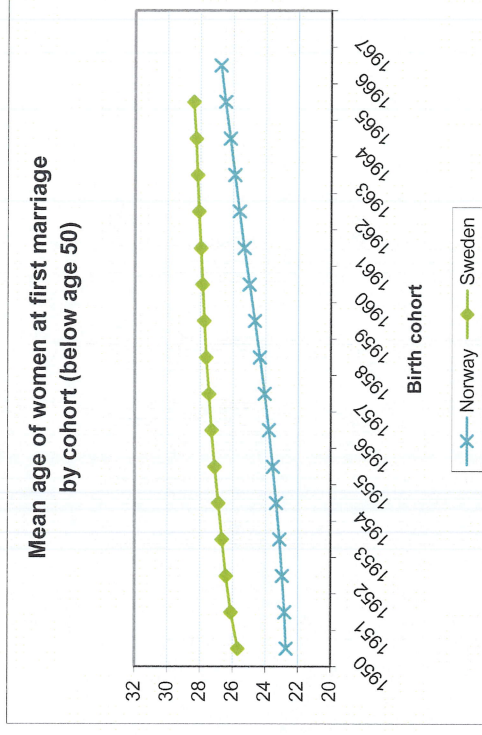
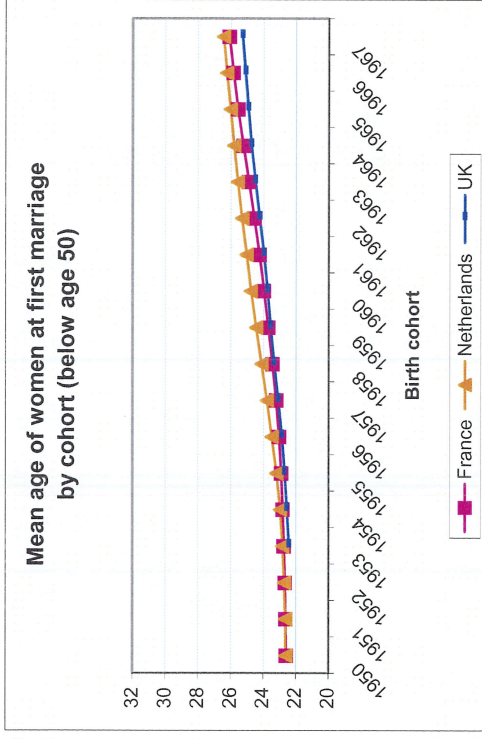
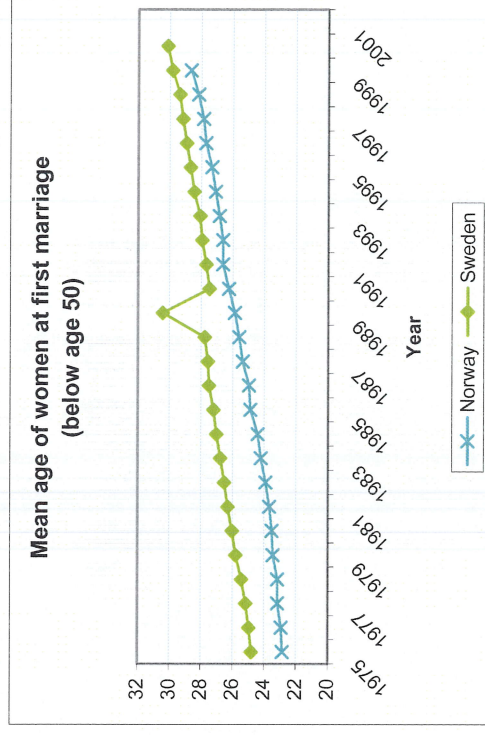
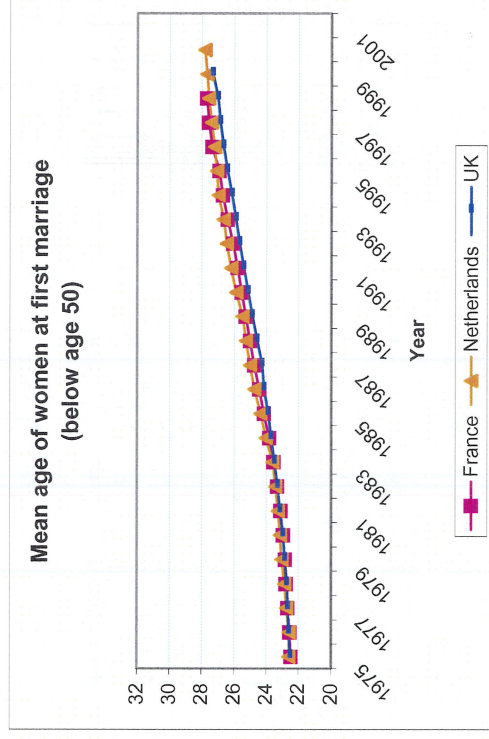


For Slovenia, the data for the period 1970-1983 are calculated from five year age-groups

Source: Recent demographic developments in Europe 2001, Council of Europe.

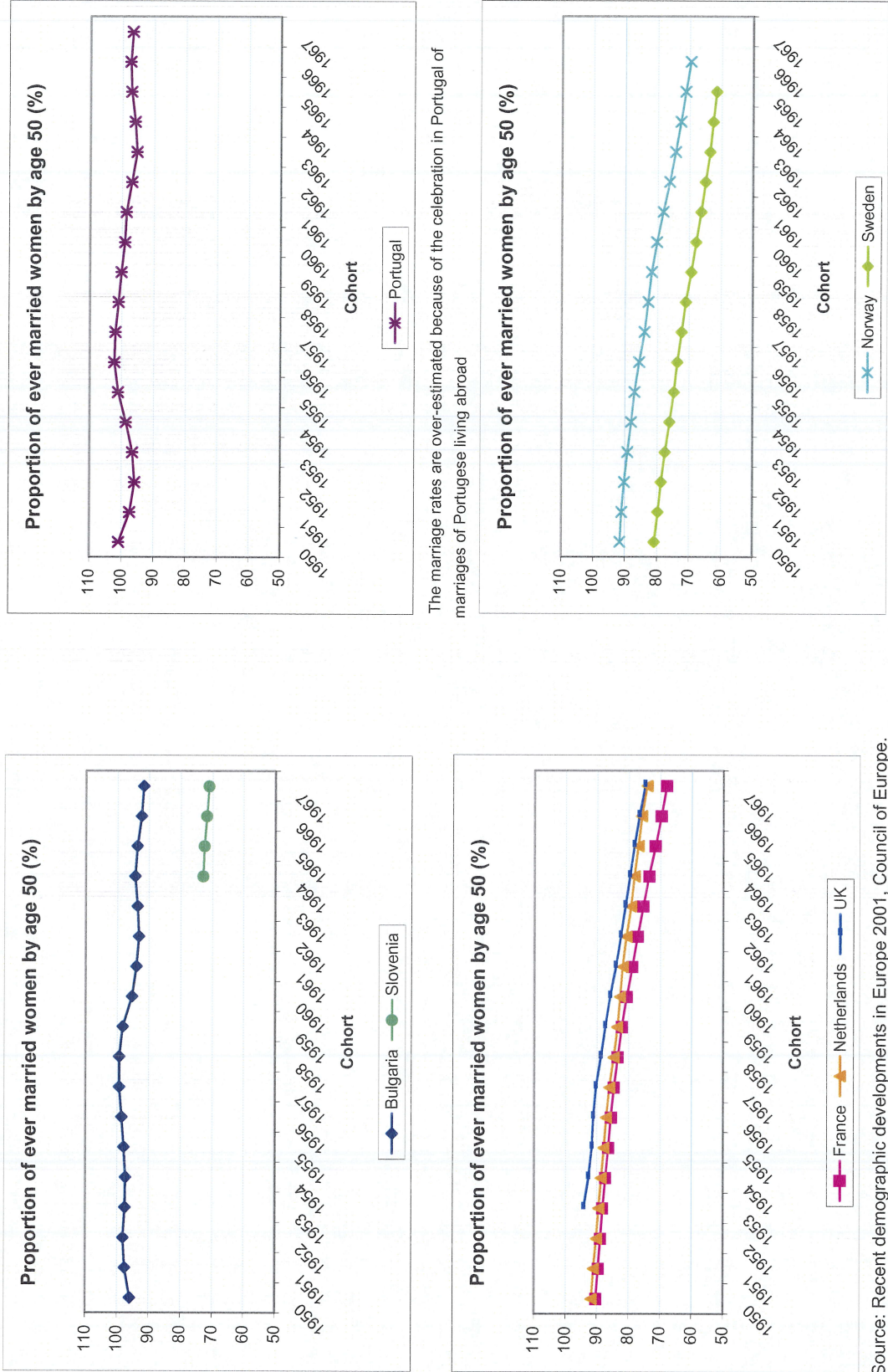


**FIGURE 3k: Mean age of women at first marriage (below age 50) (continued)**



Source: Recent demographic developments in Europe 2001, Council of Europe.

FIGURE 3I: Proportion of ever married women by age 50



Source: Recent demographic developments in Europe 2001, Council of Europe.



### **3.8 Demographic Glossary**

#### **Birth Order:**

Chronological order of live births for a woman or a couple. The first birth refers to the eldest child in a family. According to the statistics available, birth order may refer to all births to the mother or only to the births of the present marriage.

#### **Cohabitation:**

The situation of people who share the same dwelling. As a simplification, the term cohabitants is often used to describe couples living together without being married, and such unions are referred to as consensual unions.

#### **Completed Fertility or Lifetime Fertility:**

The average number of children born to women belonging to the same generation once they have reached the end of their reproductive life (in practice at the age of 50).

#### **Demographic Transition:**

The transition from a traditional demographic regime in which fertility and mortality are high to a modern regime in which fertility and mortality are much lower. The transition from a so-called regime of "natural" fertility (not controlled by couples) towards a regime of "controlled" fertility may be referred to as a fertility transition. The period during which mortality decreases is referred to as an epidemiological transition or a health transition. It is accompanied by improved health, nutrition and organization of health services and a change in the causes of death, infectious diseases disappearing progressively in favour of chronic and degenerative diseases and accidents.

#### **Fertility:**

The term fertility is used instead of natality when births are put in relation with the number of women of fertile age. The fertility of a generation can be summarized by completed fertility and mean age at childbirth, whereas the total period fertility rate measures the fertility rate for the year. When a distinction is made concerning birth order the terms first birth fertility or second birth fertility are used.

#### **Fertility Timing:**

Fertility timing is the distribution of fertility according to the ages of mothers. It may be summed up by calculating mean age at birth, or if it concerns first birth fertility, mean age at first birth. When a decrease in fertility at younger ages is at least partially compensated for by an increase in fertility at older ages, fertility timing is said to be postponed. Nuptiality timing of a generation, which refers to the distribution of first

marriages according to age, may also be summarized as mean age at first marriage.

### **Infertility:**

Infertility or the proportion of infertile women: the proportion of women in a generation who reach the end of their reproductive life without having given birth to a child. Not to be confused with infecundity or sterility, which is the incapacity to conceive.

### **Population Policies or Demographic Policies:**

All of the measures taken by the authorities aimed at influencing demographic changes. Migration policies concern measures aimed at controlling (or possibly encouraging) migrations between the country considered and foreign countries. Family policies concern all of the measures taken towards compensating the weight of family costs or to helping families in certain situations. Policies which attempt to act indirectly on fertility rates (whether towards an increase, or more often a decrease in developing countries) are referred to as fertility policies.

### **Population Replacement:**

When comparing the number of mothers in a generation with that of their daughters, at any given age, generally mean age at maternity, replacement is said to be ensured if these numbers are equal.

### **Probability:**

The probability at a given duration or age of the occurrence of an event before the ulterior duration or age. Thus death probability at a given age measures the probability for the persons surviving at that age of dying before the next age (according to different cases, one year, five years or ten years). Marriage probability measures the probability for a person who is still single at a given age to marry before the next age. For any complete series of probabilities by age one can associate a table (life table, nuptiality table...). The other usual series of the table (deaths and survivors for mortality, marriages and unmarried persons for nuptiality) are deduced from the series of probabilities.

### **Rate:**

A ratio between events having occurred in a population during a year and the number of persons in a population in the middle of the year. When the events are observed over a period shorter or longer than a year their number is multiplied or divided by the appropriate factor so as to preserve the rate's annual dimension. A rate may refer to all of the population (mortality rate, birth rate...), or to an age or age group (age-specific mortality rate, or age-specific fertility rate...) For certain phenomena the rates are computed according to the period of time since the origin event: this is the case for duration-specific divorce rates. In this case since the

number of surviving marriages is unknown the divorces are compared with the initial number of the marriage cohort.

### **Reproduction Rate:**

The indicator that measures under which conditions generations are replaced. It is computed by establishing a ratio between the number of daughters and that of their mothers, independently from effects due to population structure. This calculation can be made by taking into account the mortality (net reproduction rate) or in the absence of mortality (crude reproduction rate). In practice this rate is usually computed for a given year or period, in that case it measures the conditions of the moment in terms of reproduction.

### **Total Period Fertility Rate:**

The measure of a phenomenon based only on the data for a given year or period. Hence the total period fertility rate, which is the sum of the fertility rates by age for a given year, may be interpreted as the mean number of children a woman would give birth to if she were subjected, during her whole reproductive life, to the fertility conditions observed for that year. Of a level often comparable with the completed fertility of generations this indicator may differ for long periods when fertility timing changes: a delay in timing leads to a drop in the total fertility rate even if the completed fertility of the generations is not modified. In the same way the total period marriage rate of single people by age may differ substantially from the final proportion of married people at least once in a generation (complementary proportion of permanent celibacy). The total period divorce rate, the sum of divorce rates according to length of marriage, may also differ from the completed proportion of divorced couples for a marriage cohort.

Source: INED (French National Demographic Institute) Website: [www.ined.fr](http://www.ined.fr)

## **CHAPTER FOUR** Employment rates, activity rates, employment patterns

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Results of cross-national studies show recent convergence in employment patterns: there has been progress for the majority of women in our countries (except in Slovenia and Bulgaria). However this progress is by no means uniform, either by country or by social group. Women at the bottom of the labour market, in particular, seem to face continued and sometimes intensified discrimination.

#### **4.1 A wide range of female labour market participation patterns and diversified working-time arrangements**

Despite the significant reduction, over the last three decades, of the gender employment gap in our countries, there are still large differences in the patterns of male and female integration as illustrated by the following tables and figures:

- Proportion of women (aged 25-49 years old) working on a part-time basis varies greatly according to the country (Table 4a), from 70% in the Netherlands to 11% in Portugal. These differences are reflected in the average duration of working time per week. Mothers in Portugal devote much more time per week to their job than their counterparts living in the Netherlands or UK.
- In each of our countries, men still work on average longer hours than women, in particular when they have young children. Men in the UK put in long working hours: they work on average 47 hours per week compared with 41 hours in France. However, it is well known that in all European countries, if entrepreneurs, executives, professionals and high-level management have the freedom to organise their time at will, they work long hours which frequently spill over into the evenings and weekends.
- Labour force participation rates and employment patterns of mothers also vary according to the country (Fig. 1, 3, 4, 6, 7), France and Sweden showing the closest gender gap in terms of working hours and professional trajectories between men and women. Norway has the highest rate of female labour force participation (76,4 % of all Norwegian women aged 15-64 participate in the labour market). The Netherlands has traditionally had lower rates of female participation, yet this has been changing recently. In the last three decades the labour force participation of married women has increased geometrically, although mainly on a very short part-time basis. France is well known for having promoted the model of the "working mother" and a high proportion of mothers are in paid work, however, this is still less than the remarkably high rates of Portugal and Sweden (Fig. 7).

## 4.2 Different Working Time Regimes

The working time regime of households in France is closer to that of Norway and Sweden than to that of their nearer neighbours (Netherlands and UK) where differences in working hours between men and women remain significant due both to part-time working by women and the longer hours worked by men. Despite the increasing diversity in working hours, full-time working for both men and women is still a predominant, respected norm in France, even within couples (Bielenski et al., 2002)<sup>13</sup> contrary to the case in the United Kingdom, which has experienced a growing deregulation of working time, and where the notion of protected and standard hours is under challenge (Fagan, 2000)<sup>14</sup>.

The reduction in working time can be an opportunity for reorganising working time, as demonstrated by the importance given to company negotiations as a way of better adjusting employees' demands to firms' needs for flexibility. The result can be a diversification in working time regimes as well as a tendency to individualise working times, even within companies, and a trend towards segmenting the workforce (Fagan, Burchell 2002)<sup>15</sup>.

France is the sole country in Europe whose government has used legislation to impose a collective reduction in working time. Two laws, named after the Minister who formulated them, "Aubry 1" passed in 1997 and "Aubry 2" in 2000, imposed a reduction in the legal duration of the working week, lowering the number of hours from 39 (in place since the beginning of the 1980s) to 35 (in reality this is expressed as an annual figure of 1600 hours). The Netherlands has seen a recent reduction in working time through collective agreements, for example civil servants and banking sector workers have a 36 hour week.

The working time regime of Portuguese, Swedish and French households differs from that of several other European countries: dual-earner families are more likely to be made up of two full-time employees (Fig. 8), working shorter hours, with a relatively small difference in the time worked by men and women (Franco and Winqvist, 2002)<sup>16</sup>. This corresponds to the

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<sup>13</sup> Bielenski, H., Bosch, G. and Wagner, A., (2002), 'Working Time Preferences in Sixteen European Countries', Report for the *European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions*.

<sup>14</sup> Fagan, C. (2000), 'Working Time Preferences and European Employment Policy', Paper presented at the *International Working Party on Labour Market Segmentation*, UMIST, UK, July.

<sup>15</sup> Fagan, C. and Burchell, B., (2002), *Gender, Jobs and Working Conditions in Europe*, Luxembourg: Office for Official publications of the European Communities.

<sup>16</sup> Franco, A., Winqvist, K., (2002), 'Les hommes et les femmes concilient travail et vie familiale'. *Statistiques en bref*, Eurostat, Thème 3, 9/2002.

preferences expressed by women in France as analysed by Burchell and Fagan (2002) in their comparative research on working time preferences in Europe. Therefore, while women in the majority of European countries would like to work less than 30 hours a week, French and Portuguese women confirm their preference for full-time employment.

Norwegian mothers with children 0-6 years of age increased their employment rates significantly during the 1990s. The rate for mothers with children below 3 years of age rose from 66% in 1991, to 74% in 2000. The rate for mothers with children between the ages of 3 and 6 rose from 73% to 82% in the same period (OECD, 2001). Fathers with young children have meanwhile reduced their actual working hours throughout the 1990s. The gender gap in labour market behaviour among Norwegian parents has therefore diminished in the 1990s: More full-time work among mothers and shorter working hours among fathers resulted in more similar contractual working hours (Kitterød and Kjeldstad, 2002). In spite of increasing full-time work, Norwegian mothers still have higher part-time rates: Close to 50 per cent of mothers with children under 6 years of age had a part-time arrangement. Part-time arrangements are still quite rare among fathers in Norway. Only around 5 percent of fathers with children 0-6 years of age had contractual part-time work in 2000.

#### **4.3 Distribution of paid work within couples with children is very uneven in UK and the Netherlands**

Figures 4h and 4i show that in the UK and, in particular in the Netherlands, there is uneven distribution of paid work within couples with children. These figures are consistent with figure 4j: more than 80% of mothers with 2 children or more in the Netherlands hold a part-time job compared with 10% in Portugal (it should also be underlined that, whatever the country, male part-time job is very rare). Sweden, France and especially Portugal stand out as countries where the dominant mode of distribution is full-time employment for both partners. In *Portugal*, this form of the division of paid work is dominant not only in relative but also in absolute terms. It is in Portugal, Sweden and France that working time preferences point most strongly in the direction of an equal division of paid work between partners. In Portugal, couples would like to increase their already very long working times (Table 4a) further, which is probably attributable to the relatively low rates of pay in that country (see Table 1b in Chapter 1).

#### **4.4 Social inequalities**

As a whole, it seems that polarisation between highly qualified, well paid women and those who are less qualified has developed over the last decade.

It is often stated that technology, deregulation, and globalization have prompted employers to compete with one another by slashing labor costs.

Against this background, low-wage workers (and women are over-represented among them), in addition to their low pay, are more likely than more qualified workers to have rigid or late-night work schedules, unsafe working conditions, and inadequate (or nonexistent) health care. Many of these workers are often trapped in a career cul-de-sac or with slim prospects of making it into the middle class.

Unemployment rates are higher for women than for men but unemployment rate decreases with the rise in female educational attainment level (in a lesser extent in Portugal) (Figure 4b): low educated women are more vulnerable and less protected on the labour market.

Table 4f shows the percentage of women employed in the public sector. it is often argued that there is a gap between the public and the private sectors as far as family-friendly measures are concerned. Holding a stable job in the public sector where trade unions are generally stronger would provide employees with more flexible opportunities. It would be easier to claim their rights to parental leave, sick leave or time off to look after children (Fine-Davis and al., 2004). However, being a public servant has different implications from one country to another (in France, for instance, but not in Sweden, a public servant cannot be made redundant and holds a lifetime job). And in many Member States, the public sector is now required to increase productivity, which may impact on the interplay between work and family.

#### **4.5 Women still have not attained equality with men**

Gender discrimination on the labour market is a complex issue and would require more investigation. However, average gross hourly earnings of females as a percentage of average gross hourly earnings of males (Table 6) suggest that gender pay gap still persists everywhere, however in a lesser extent in Portugal. Despite the important in-roads that women have made into the higher status professional and managerial occupations, they are often over-represented among low jobs (Table 2): in Sweden and Portugal, 7 out of 10 elementary occupations are held by women compared with 45% in the UK.

#### **4.6 The presence of children has a strong impact on female employment patterns and on career progression for women**

The presence of children does not have a strong impact on male employment patterns and on their career progress whatever the country, as illustrated by Table 4 (see also Fig. 10). Table 5 shows that, in the *Netherlands* and *UK*, even among highly educated women, mothers are much more likely to work on a part-time basis than women without children. This is not the case in Portugal or Sweden.

The number of children is a discriminating factor of employment rates of women: employment rate decreases along with the number of children (Fig.7). *Except in Portugal* (where the legislation is not favourable to the development of part-time jobs), women are also much more likely to work on a part-time basis when they have two children or more than when they have one child only (Fig. 10). This is *particularly true in the Netherlands and UK*.

Age of the youngest child has a significant impact on employment rates of mothers only in the UK and France (Fig. 6).

### **...and women with children are less continuously employed than women without children**

Table 4c illustrates that it is much more so in the Netherlands and UK than in France and in particular, in Portugal.

### **Everywhere, level of education is a strong discriminating variable of employment rates**

In each country, female employment performance is by no means uniform for all women. Figure 4a illustrates that the higher the educational level, the higher the activity rates of mothers. However, low educated mothers in Portugal are much more often "active" (holding a job or registered as unemployed) than their other European counterparts.

### **Overall Index of Labour Market Well-Being: Norway ranks first**

Table 4g shows the results of calculation of an *Overall Index of Labour Market Well-Being* (taking into account: Labour market income + Human Capital + Labour market equality + Labour market security) (only for OECD member countries): going hand in hand with low social inequalities (see Table 1a in Chapter 1), highest GDP per capita and generous family-friendly policies (see Chapter 2), Norway and Sweden are at the top of the ladder. The UK performs least well on this index, just behind France.

**TABLE 4a : Actual working hours of women and men with children and % of women working part-time (2000)**

|             | <b>Women (25-49 years old) working part-time (2000)*</b> | <b>Actual working hours of women with children in the same household**</b> | <b>Actual working hours of men with children in the same household**</b> |
|-------------|--|--|--|
| France      | 30.6   | 34.0   | 40.8****   |
| Netherlands | 69.4   | 21.2   | 43.2   |
| Norway      | 42.5#  | 32.4   | 41.9   |
| Portugal    | 10.7   | 35.8   | 43.3   |
| Sweden      | -  | 35.0   | 42.9   |
| UK          | 42.2   | 28.3   | 46.9   |
| Slovenia*** | 7.7 (1)  | 40.3 (1)   | 42.5 (1)   |
| Bulgaria(2) | 20.8   | 40.4   | 41.7   |

\*Source: Eurostat, European Social Statistics: Labour Force, 2000

\*\* Source: Bielenski, H. et al. 2002, Working time preferences in 16 countries, European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions.

\*\*\* Statistical Office of RS, Labour Force Survey, 2002

\*\*\*\* Since this time the 35 hour week came into force in France.

# Women (15-64 years old) working part-time (2000). Source: OECD, Employment outlook, 2002.

(1) All employed men or women

(2) Source for BG Eurostat 002 Employment and Labour Market in Central European Countries, Vol. 2, p. 44-46.

**TABLE 4b : Women's Presence in Some Occupational Groups, 2000**

|                      | <b>Legislators,<br/>senior<br/>officials and<br/>managers</b> | <b>Professionals</b> | <b>Elementary<br/>occupations</b> |
|----------------------|---|----------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Sweden               | 32  | 57                   | 71                                |
| Netherlands          | 41  | 55                   | 59                                |
| UK                   | 37  | 58                   | 45                                |
| France               | 46  | 45                   | 56                                |
| Portugal             | 42  | 52                   | 71                                |
| Slovenia *<br>(1999) | 31.7  | 60.7                 | 64.3                              |
| Norway**<br>(2001)   | 25.9  | 40.8                 | 59.5                              |

Source: C. Fagan, B. Burchell, 2002, *Gender, jobs and Working Conditions in the EU*, Research report for the European Foundation, p. 19.

\* Source: Černigoj Sadar, N & Verša, D.(2002), Own calculations based on Labour force survey 1999.

\*\* Source: Statistics Norway, Labour Force Survey, 2001.

Černigoj Sadar, N. & Verša, D. (2002). Zaposlovanje žensk ( Employment of women). In: Svetlik, I. Et al., (2002) Politika zaposlovanja ( Employment policy), Fakulteta za družbene vede, Ljubljana.

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**TABLE 4c : Employment Continuity by Gender and Presence of Children\***

Persons continuously employed over five and eight years as a percentage of those who were employed at least one year during the observation period

|              |                  |                        | France | Netherlands | Portugal | United Kingdom |
|--------------|------------------|------------------------|--------|-------------|----------|----------------|
| <b>Women</b> | Without children | Continuously employed  | 63     | 73          | 65       | 76             |
|              |                  | Continuously full-time | 48     | 35          | 54       | 43             |
|              |                  | Continuously part-time | 7      | 25          | 1        | 14             |
|              | With children    | Continuously employed  | 47     | 43          | 60       | 54             |
|              |                  | Continuously full-time | 35     | 3           | 54       | 15             |
|              |                  | Continuously part-time | 5      | 28          | 1        | 20             |
| <b>Men</b>   | Without children | Continuously employed  | 75     | 65          | 77       | 82             |
|              | With children    | Continuously employed  | 74     | 84          | 92       | 80             |

\*Individuals aged 20 to 50 years in the starting year working at least one year during the period analysed.

Source: OECD, Employment Outlook, 2002

**TABLE 4d : Career Progress for Women and Men with or without Children\***

**Percentage of workers whose supervisory responsibilities increased over four years.**

|              |                  | France | Netherlands | Portugal | United Kingdom |
|--------------|------------------|--------|-------------|----------|----------------|
| <b>Women</b> | With children    | 16     | 6           | 9        | 21             |
|              | Without children | 14     | 12          | 9        | 25             |
|              | Total            | 15     | 10          | 9        | 23             |
| <b>Men</b>   | With children    | 23     | 22          | 8        | 27             |
|              | Without children | 17     | 18          | 9        | 26             |
|              | Total            | 20     | 20          | 8        | 26             |

\* Persons aged 20 to 50 years who were employed and had no or only some supervisory role in the starting year.

Source: OECD, Employment Outlook, 2002

**TABLE 4e : The Effect of the Presence of Children on the Employment Status of Women\***

**Percentage point difference in the frequency of a specific status between women with children and women without children.**

|                       | <b>Less than upper secondary education</b> |           |           |
|-----------------------|--|-----------|-----------|
|                       | Non-employed                               | Part-time | Full-time |
| <b>France</b>         | 13,6                                       | 0,1       | -13,7     |
| <b>Netherlands</b>    | 5,5  | 8,6       | -14,2     |
| <b>Portugal</b>       | -3,4                                       | -0,6      | 4         |
| <b>Sweden</b>         | 5,5  | 1,9       | -7,5      |
| <b>United Kingdom</b> | 18,2                                       | 1,8       | -20       |

|                       | <b>University/Tertiary</b> |           |           |
|-----------------------|----------------------------|-----------|-----------|
|                       | Non-employed               | Part-time | Full-time |
| <b>France</b>         | 4,4                        | 7,6       | -12,1     |
| <b>Netherlands</b>    | 7,5                        | 35,5      | -43       |
| <b>Portugal</b>       | -2                         | 1         | 1         |
| <b>Sweden</b>         | -2,2                       | 5,1       | -2,9      |
| <b>United Kingdom</b> | 10,5                       | 21,2      | -31,7     |

\* Computed for the case of women aged 25-54

Source: OECD, Employment Outlook, 2002

**TABLE 4f : Some Female Employment Patterns and Average gross hourly earnings of women as a percentage of average gross hourly earnings of men**

|             | <b>% of women employed in agriculture* (2000)</b> | <b>% of women's employment in the public sector (1996)</b> | <b>Average gross hourly earnings (##) of females as a percentage of average gross hourly earnings of males* (1999)</b> |
|-------------|---|--|--|
| Norway#     | 1.8<br>(2001)                                     | 45   | 86<br>(2001)   |
| Sweden      | 1.3   | 60   | 83   |
| Netherlands | 2.4   | 45   | 79   |
| UK          | 0.8   | 44   | 78   |
| France      | 3.0   | 46   | 88   |
| Portugal    | 12.0  | 40   | 95   |
| Slovenia    | 9.6<br>(2001)***                                  |  | 86****<br>(1995)   |
| Bulgaria    | 10.6**  |  |  |

\* Source: European Commission, Employment in Europe, 2001.

# Source: Labour Force Survey, 2001.

## average **monthly** salary of Norwegian women working full-time was 86 % of men working full-time.

\*\* Source: Eurostat, 2001, Employment and Labour Market in Central European Countries

\*\*\*Source: Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia, 2001

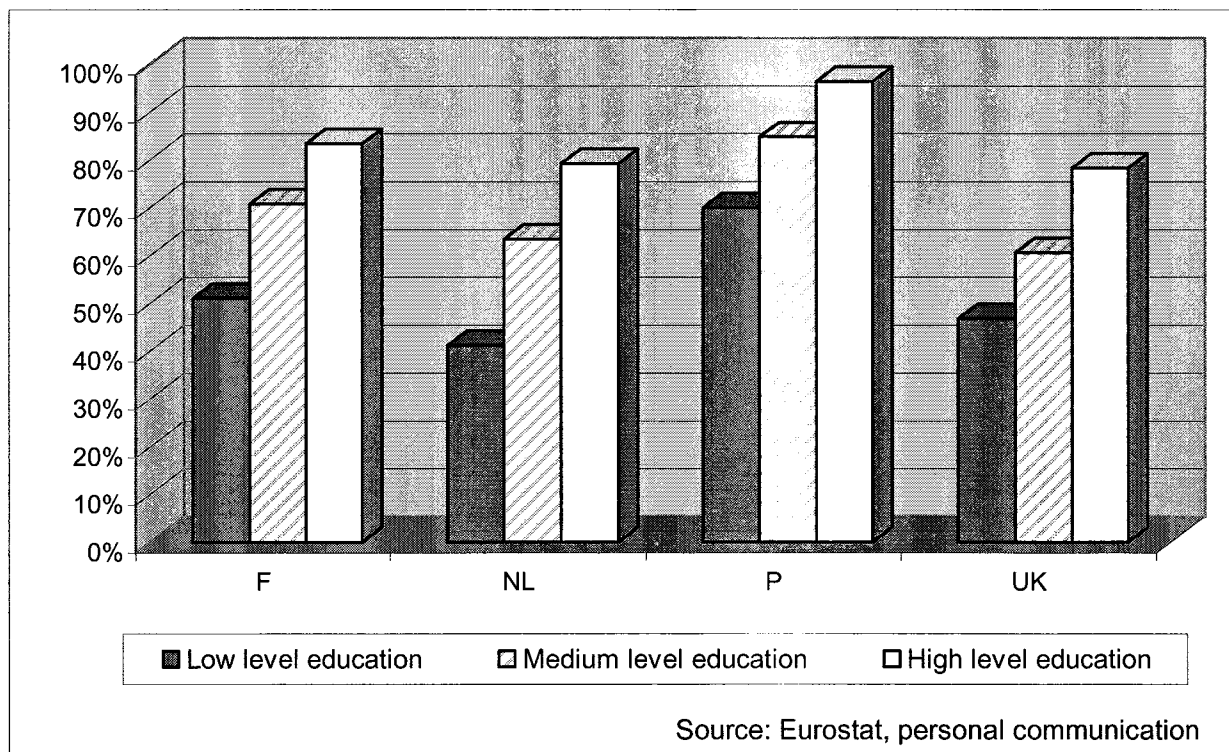
\*\*\*\* percentage of average gross monthly earnings

**TABLE 4g : Overall Index of Labour Market Well-Being (Labour market income + Human Capital+ Labour market equality+Labour market security) (2001)**

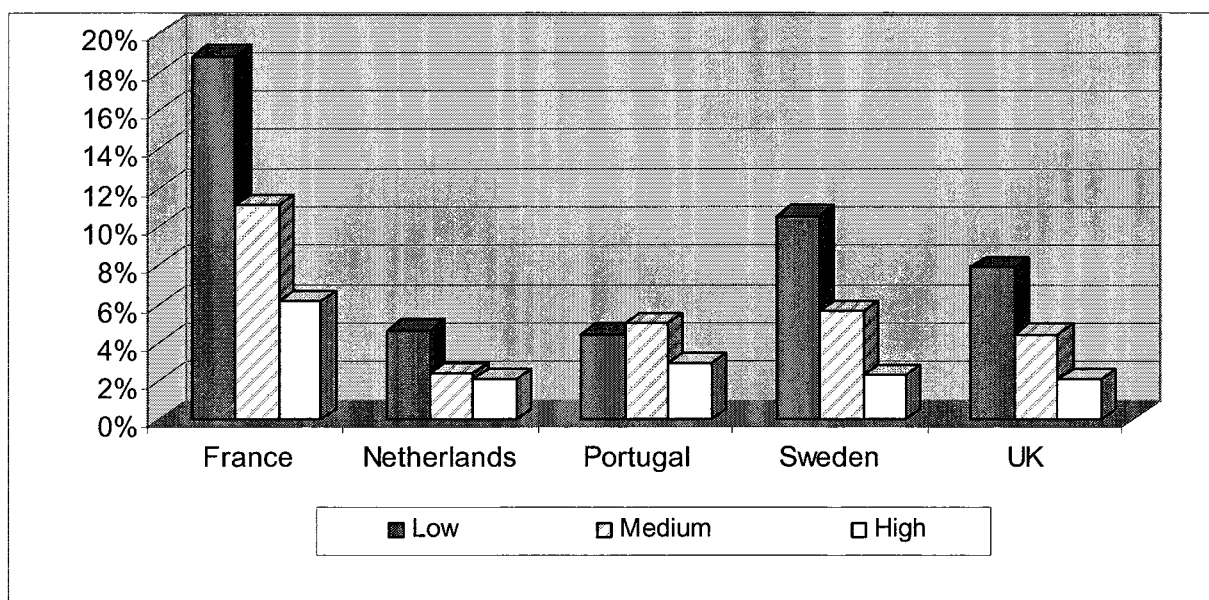
|                    | <b>INDEX</b>  | <b>RANK</b> |
|--------------------|---------------|-------------|
| <b>Norway</b>      | <b>0.6996</b> | <b>1</b>    |
| <b>Sweden</b>      | <b>0.6405</b> | <b>2</b>    |
| <b>Netherlands</b> | <b>0.6329</b> | <b>3</b>    |
| <b>France</b>      | <b>0.5905</b> | <b>4</b>    |
| <b>UK</b>          | <b>0.5396</b> | <b>5</b>    |

Source: L. Osberg, A. Sharpe, An Index of Labour Market Well-Being for OECD Countries, Centre for the Study of Living Standards, Ottawa, Canada, 2003

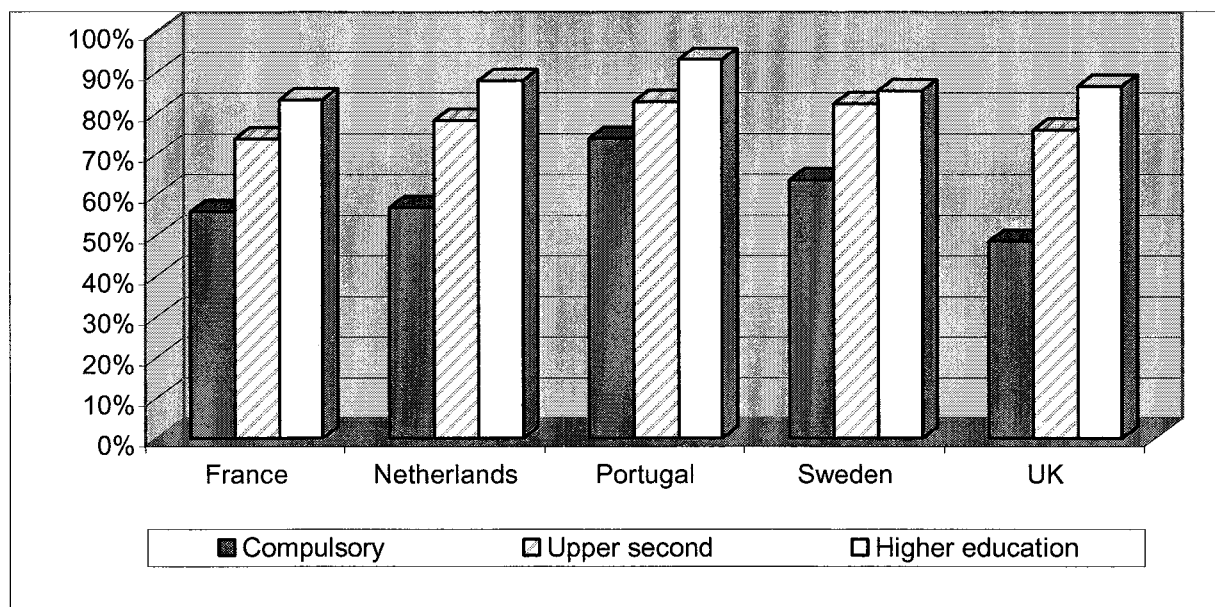
**FIGURE 4a: Activity Rates of Women with at least 1 Child aged less than 6 by Education Attainment Level (1997)**



**FIGURE 4b: Unemployment Rates for Women (25-49) by Education Attainment Level (2000)**

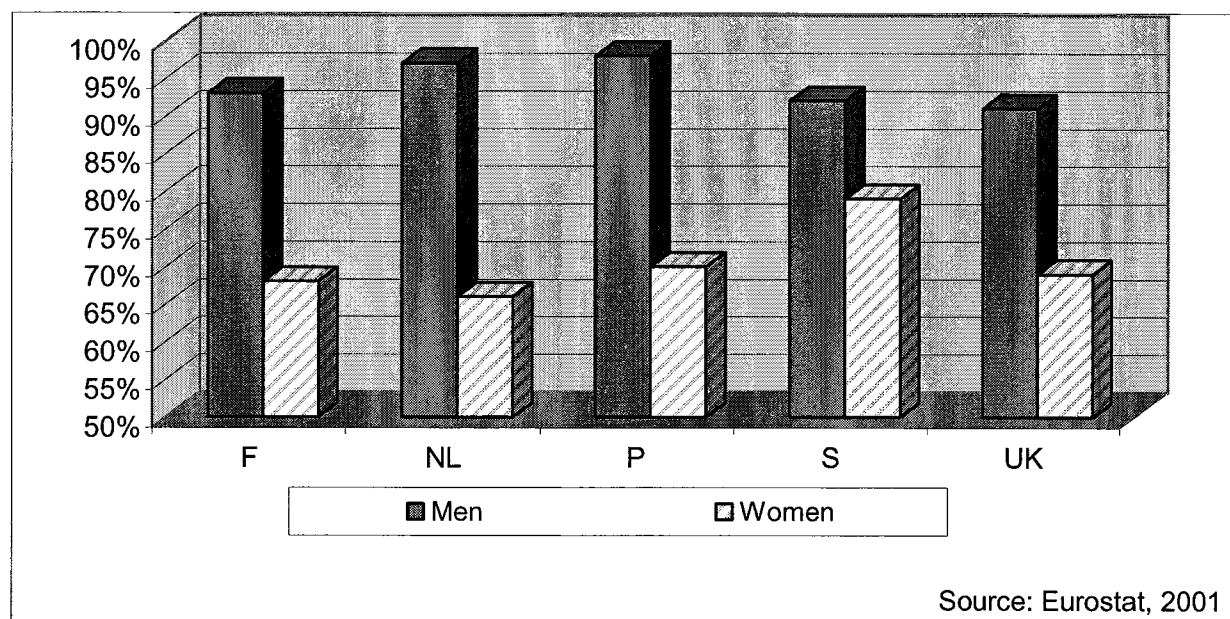


**FIGURE 4c: Employment Rates for Women, aged 25-49, by Education Attainment Level (2000)**



Source: Eurostat, European Social Statistics: Labour Force Survey, 2001

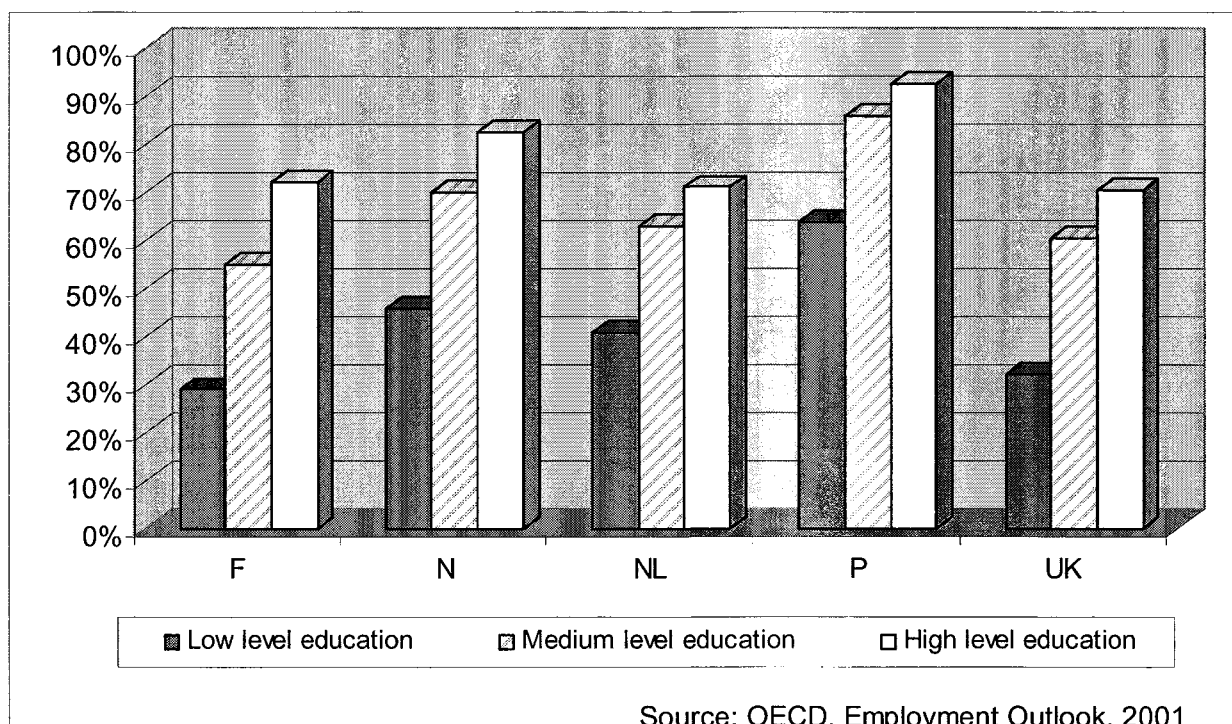
**FIGURE 4d: Employment Rates of Men and Women with Children aged under 16 (1998)**



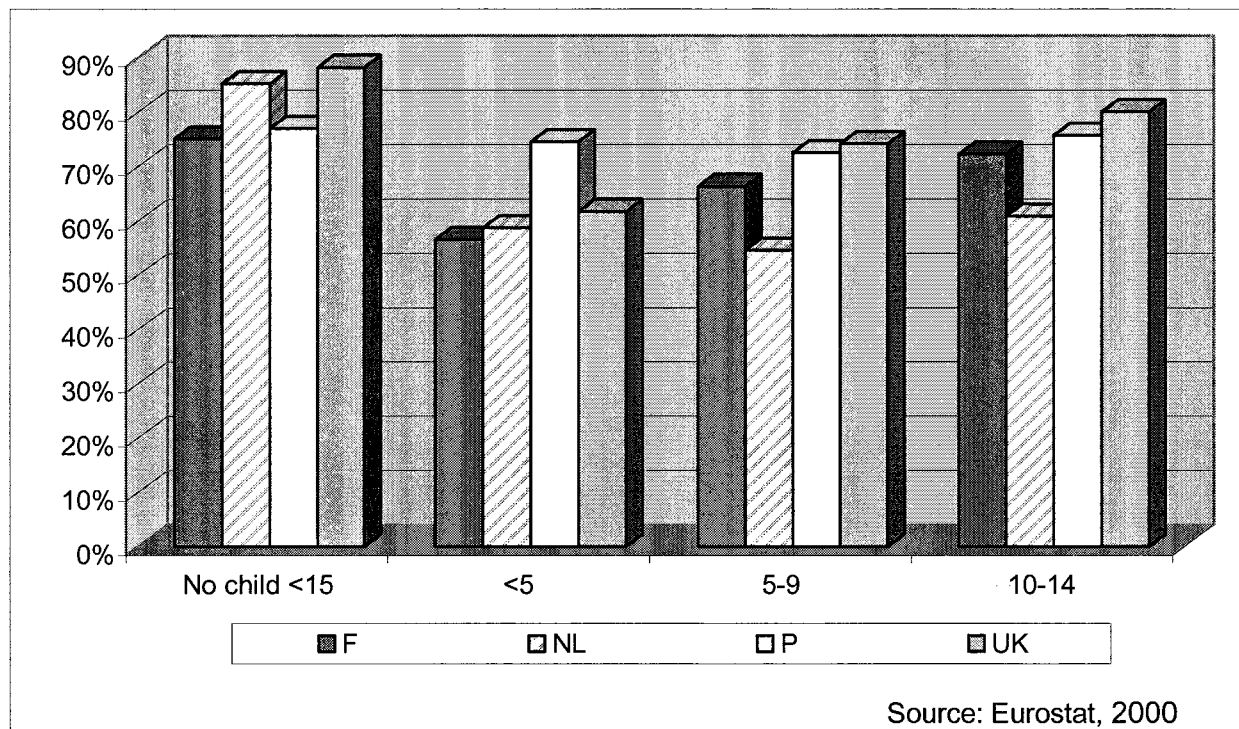
**Norway:** Employment rate of mothers with children under 16: 81 % (2000)  
Employment rate of fathers with children under 16: 95 % (2000)  
Source: Statistics Norway.



**FIGURE 4e: Employment Rates of Mothers (in Couple Families with Child(ren) aged under 6 by Educational Level (1999)**



**FIGURE 4f: Employment Rates of Women aged 30-39 according to the Age of the Youngest Child (1997)**



**FIGURE 4f: Comparable data from Norway**

**a) Women in the labour force by age of youngest child (2002)**

| <b>Age of child</b> | <b>Labour force participation rate</b> |
|---------------------|--|
| <b>0-2</b>          | <b>72,9</b>                            |
| <b>3-6</b>          | <b>82,4</b>                            |
| <b>7-10</b>         | <b>84,6</b>                            |
| <b>11-15</b>        | <b>86,6</b>                            |
| <b>Total</b>        | <b>81,4</b>                            |

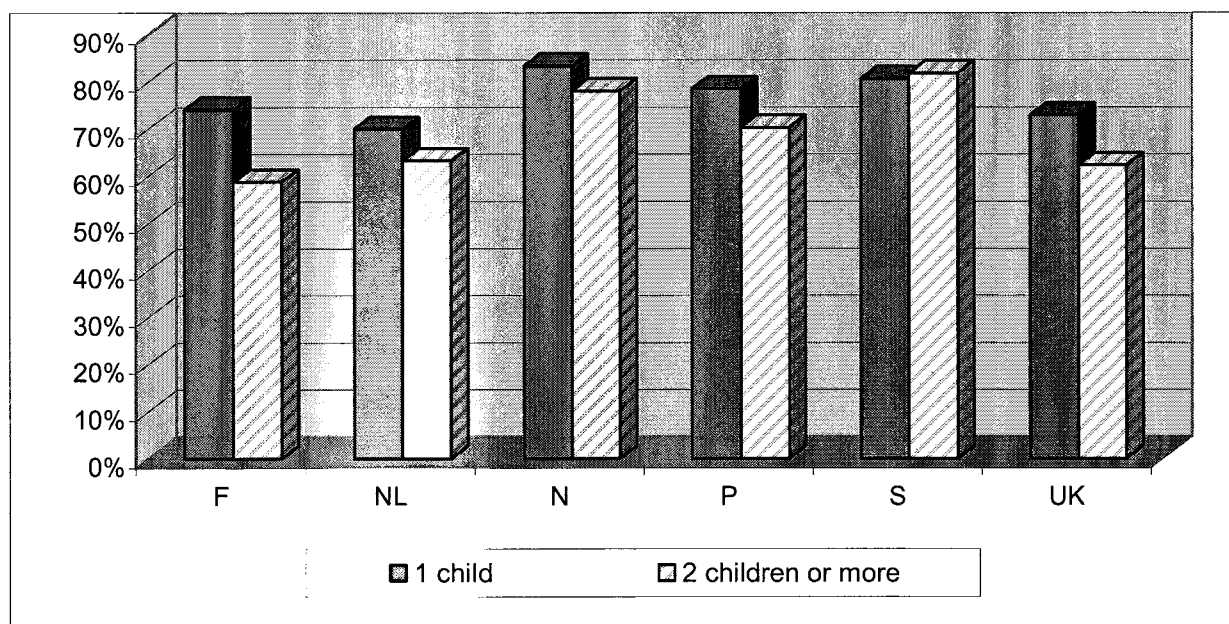
(Source: Kitterød and Kjeldstad 2002)

**b) Average working hours among employed married/cohabiting mothers and fathers with children (Norway)**

|                                   | 1991 | 2000 | <b>Change</b> |
|-----------------------------------|------|------|---------------|
| <b>Mothers</b>                    |      |      |               |
| Children 0-2 years                | 28.5 | 30.4 | +1.9          |
| Children 3-6 years                | 26.8 | 29.8 | +3.0          |
| <b>Fathers</b>                    |      |      |               |
| Children 0-2 years                | 39.9 | 38.8 | -1.1          |
| Children 3-6 years                | 40.7 | 39.8 | -0.9          |
| <b>Difference</b>                 |      |      |               |
| (mothers' in % of fathers' hours) |      |      |               |
| Children 0-2 years                | 71.4 | 78.4 | +7.0          |
| Children 3-6 years                | 65.8 | 74.9 | +9.1          |

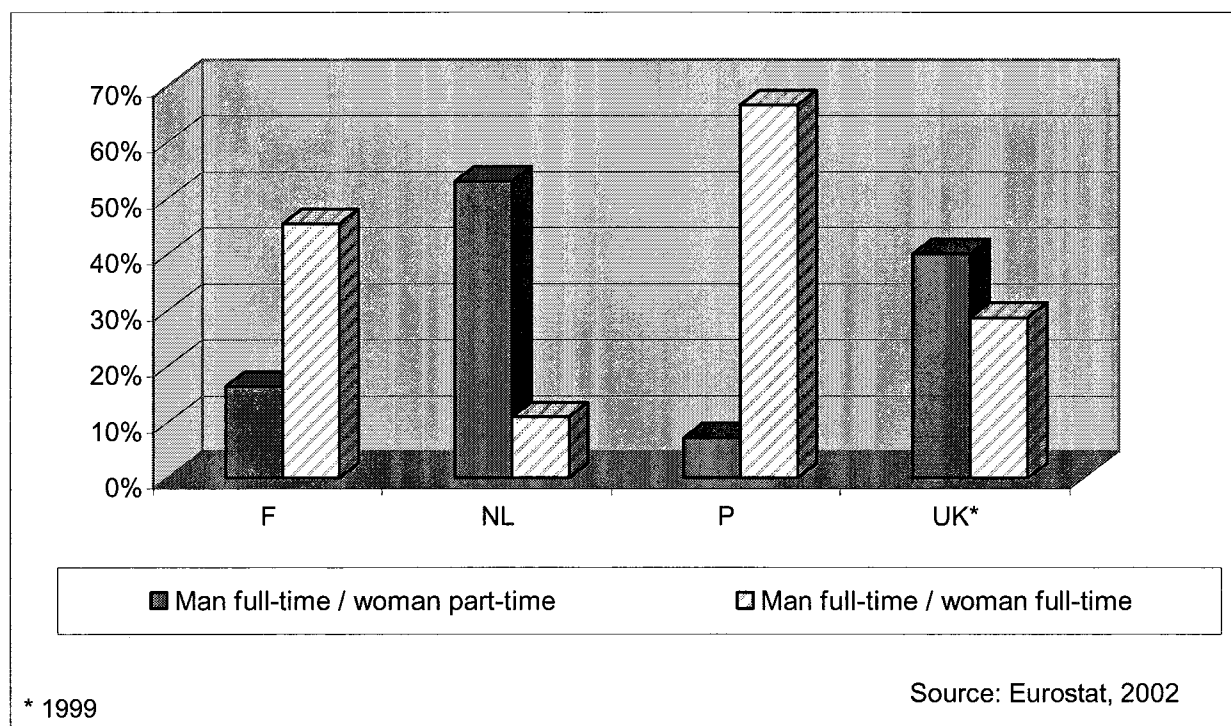
(Source: Kitterød & Kjeldstad 2002)

**FIGURE 4g: Employment Rates of Women - aged between 25 and 54 -according to the Number of Children (2000)**



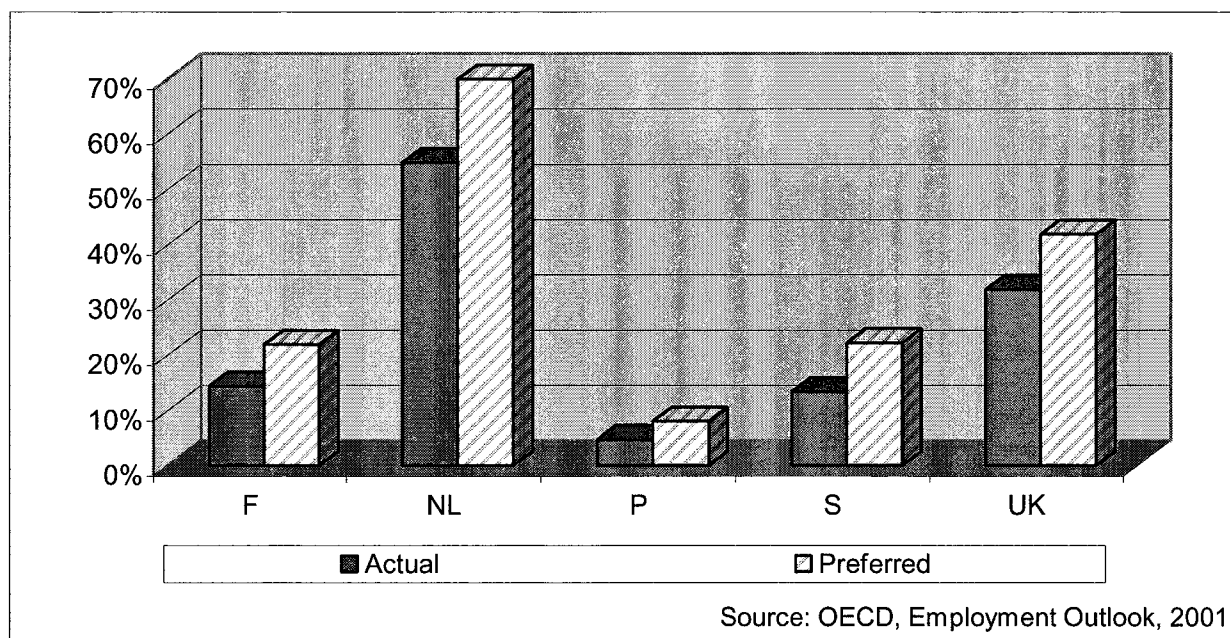
Source: Perspectives de l'Emploi de l'OCDE, 2002

**FIGURE 4h: Distribution of Paid Work: Dual-earner Couples with Children (2000)**

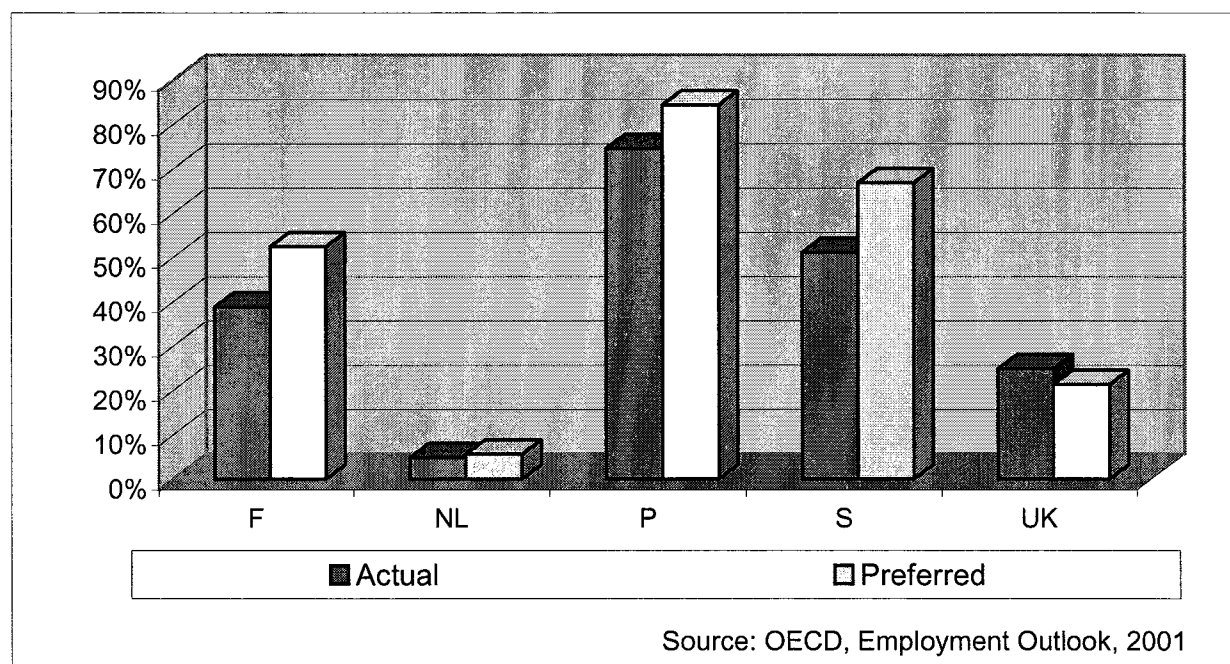


**FIGURE 4i: Actual and Preferred Modes of Distribution of Paid Work between Partners (1999)**

**1. Man full-time, woman part-time (couples with at least one child aged under 6)**

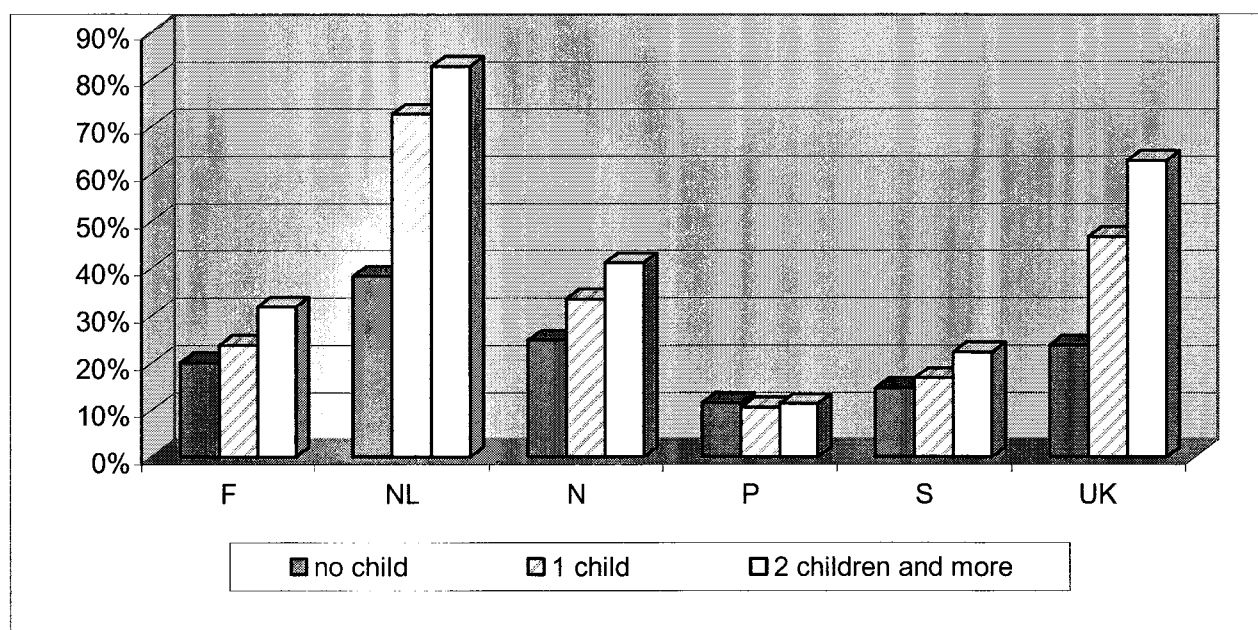


**2. Man full-time, woman full-time (couples with at least one child aged under 6)**

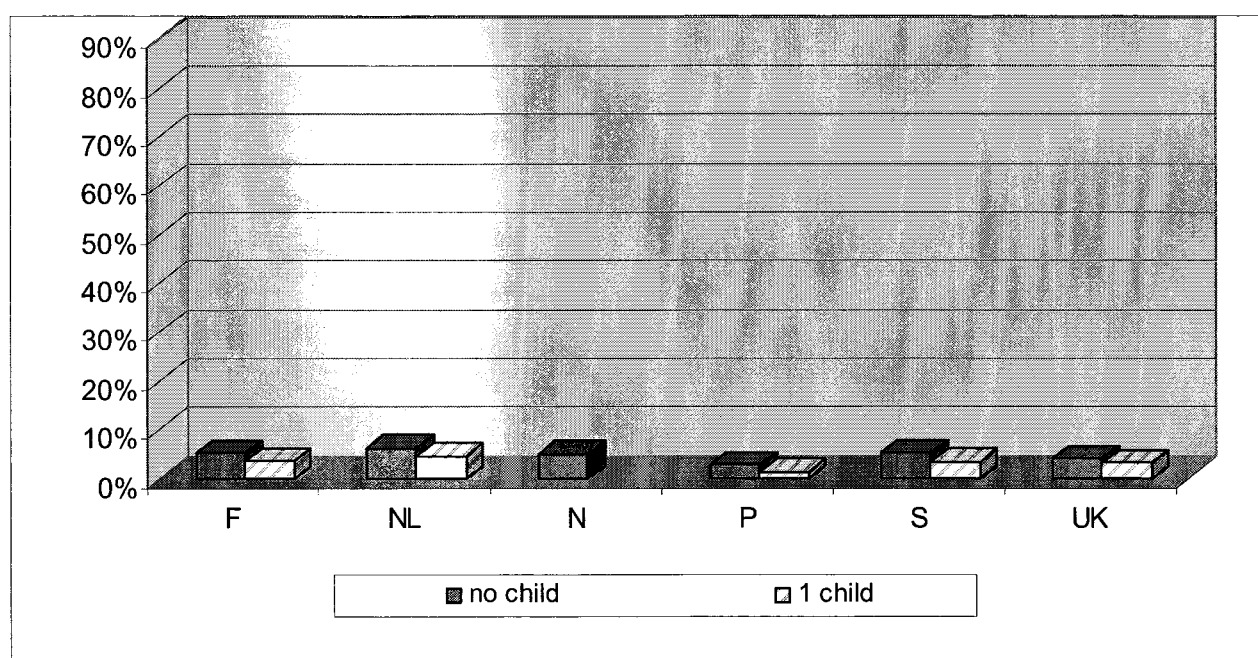


**FIGURE 4j: Part-time Work according to Gender and Number of Children (2000)**

**1. Women (aged 25-54)**

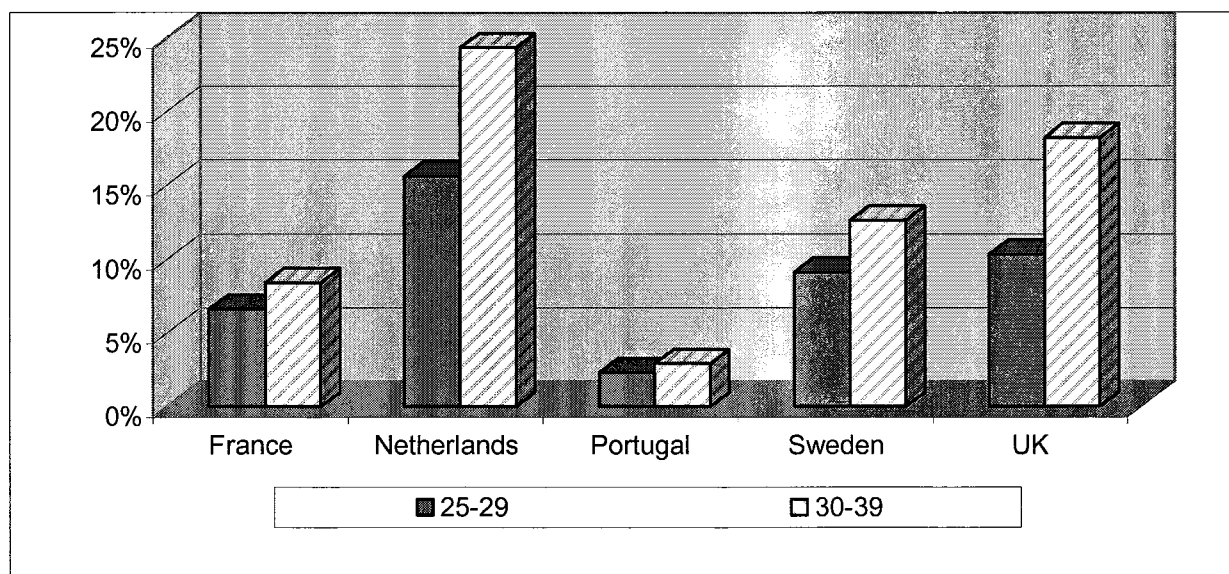


**2. Men (aged 25-54)**



Source: Perspectives de l'Emploi de l'OCDE,

**FIGURE 4k: Differences between Normal and Full-time Equivalent Employment Rates for Women by age (1996)**



Source: Employment Performance in the Member States: Employment rates report, 1998, Eurostat and European Commission



**FIGURE 4k: BULGARIA - Rates of Employment and Unemployment: evolution 1996 to 2000**

|                                  | <b>1996</b> | <b>1997</b> | <b>1998</b> | <b>1999</b> | <b>2000</b> |
|----------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| <b>Employment rate – total</b>   | <b>51.8</b> | <b>51.6</b> | <b>50.4</b> | <b>49.2</b> | <b>47.5</b> |
| Men                              | 56.7        | 56.7        | 55.6        | 54.5        | 52.4        |
| Women                            | 47.2        | 46.8        | 45.6        | 44.2        | 42.9        |
| <b>Unemployment rate – total</b> | <b>13.7</b> | <b>15.0</b> | <b>16.0</b> | <b>17.0</b> | <b>16.4</b> |
| Men                              | 13.6        | 14.7        | 16.1        | 17.3        | 16.5        |
| Women                            | 13.8        | 15.3        | 15.9        | 16.8        | 16.2        |

Source: NSI, 2002:31-32.

## **CHAPTER FIVE** Education attainment levels

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Throughout the European Union, the majority of young people remain in education until their 16<sup>th</sup> birthdays and complete their studies by the age of 25. Six out of seven European 17 year olds are in full-time education or training. This proportion drops as age increases. Accordingly, at the age of 20, the proportion of those in education falls by half; by the age of 26, only 10% of young people are still in education (Iacovou, Berthoud 2001)<sup>17</sup>. The proportion of young people staying in education is lowest in the UK and Portugal and highest in the Netherlands, Sweden and France (Table 5b and figure 5a).

As stated by Andy Biggart et al. (2002)<sup>18</sup>, over the last few decades, we have witnessed a rapid expansion in the numbers of young people participating in post-compulsory education and training: *"During the Fordist era, transitions from education to work were relatively clear-cut; young people pursued a range of collective routes, highly structured according to their social class and gender. Only a small minority or elite followed protracted transitions, involving extended education and dependence. In the modern European context, transitions from education to work have become much more complex. A majority now pursue an array of post-compulsory educational pathways, through continuing education or training. As a result young people remain dependent on their families for much longer periods than was previously the norm. A number of factors have encouraged this trend: the restructuring of labour markets, heightened demand for educated labour and national and European policies aimed at upgrading skills to adapt and compete at the highest level within a global economy. These social and economic trends, together with policies that have encouraged widening participation, have lengthened young people's period of dependence or semi-dependence on their families. In addition, in many European countries, the difficulties young people face in gaining entry to the labour market has led to a further extension of dependency."*

The frequency of this period of dependence can be illustrated by the proportion of young people – aged 26-29 years old – who still live with their parents. Variation across our countries is striking: 53% in Portugal, 18% in France, 15% in UK and 10% in the Netherlands (data not available for other countries) (Source: Eurostat, Panel communautaire de ménages, Wave 3, 1996). This variation partly mirrors the difficulties young people have to cope with as far as housing availabilities are concerned. It also reflects differences with regard to opportunities to get a stable and secure job, in particular for low qualified people.

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<sup>17</sup> Iacovou, M. and Berthoud, R. (2001): *Young People's Lives: a map of Europe*. Colchester: University of Essex, Institute for Social and Economic Research.

<sup>18</sup> Andy Biggart, René Bendit, David Cairns, Kerstin Hein & Sven Mörch, 2002, Families And Transitions In Europe: State Of The Art Report, (HPSE-CT2001-00079)

**TABLE 5a : Female Share of Persons (aged 25-34) with a Medium or High Level of Education Attainment, 2000**

|             | At least Upper Secondary Education | Tertiary Education |
|-------------|------------------------------------|--------------------|
| France      | 50,2                               | 54                 |
| Netherlands | 50,8                               | 50,5               |
| Norway      | 49,8                               | 55,2               |
| Portugal    | 55,7                               | 60,5               |
| Sweden      | 48,9                               | 53,1               |
| UK          | 49,2                               | 46,8               |
| Slovenia    | 54                                 | 15                 |
| Bulgaria    | 47                                 | 22                 |

Source: OECD, *Employment Outlook*, 2002

Source for Bulgaria and Slovenia : European Training Foundation 1999 Vocational Education and Training in Central and Eastern Europe. Key Indicators, p. 37.

**TABLE 5b : Proportion of young people in education or training, by selected single years of age**

| Age         | 23 | 26 |
|-------------|----|----|
| All Europe  | 25 | 11 |
| Sweden      | 21 | 8  |
| Netherlands | 42 | 9  |
| UK          | 3  | 2  |
| France      | 24 | 6  |
| Portugal    | 21 | 4  |

Source: Iacovou, M. and Berthoud, R. (2001): *Young People's Lives: a map of Europe*. Colchester: University of Essex, Institute for Social and Economic Research.

**TABLE 5c : Significance of ISCED levels**

| <b>ISCED levels</b> | <b>Significance of ISCED levels</b>  | <b>Level of Qualification</b> |
|---------------------|--|-------------------------------|
| <b>0</b>            | Pre-education level: precedes primary education and is most of the times not compulsory.   | Low                           |
| <b>1</b>            | Primary education level: compulsory education for children aged between 4-7 years. It mostly comprises from 5 to 7 years of schooling.   |                               |
| <b>2</b>            | Lower secondary education: compulsory education. In many Member States, general compulsory education ends by finishing this level (Exceptions: Belgium, Germany, the Netherlands and Austria where compulsory schooling ends by the age of 18) |                               |
| <b>3</b>            | Upper secondary education: academic or vocational education that usually begins by the age of 14 or 15 and leads to higher educational levels such as University.  | Medium                        |
| <b>4</b>            | Higher education level other than University.  | High                          |
| <b>5</b>            | University Education.  |                               |
| <b>6</b>            | Postgraduate Studies.  |                               |

Source: Commission Européenne (1997): Young People in the EU.

**TABLE 5d : Share of the female population by educational attainment levels (2001)**

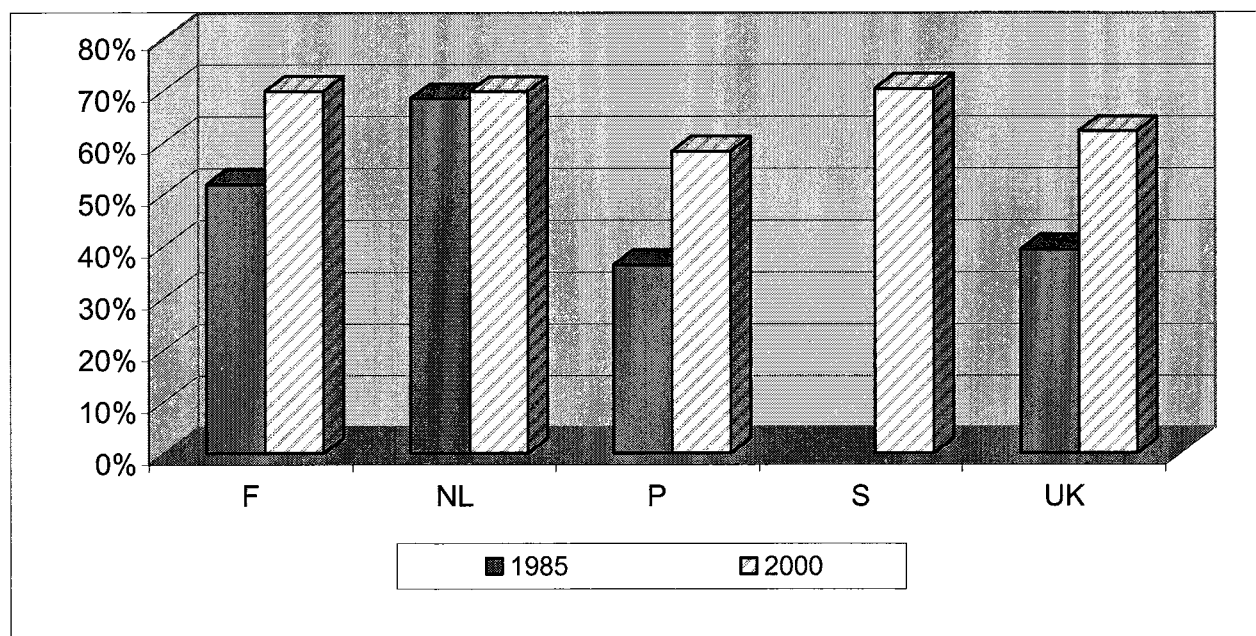
|                   | <b>LOW</b> | <b>MEDIUM</b> | <b>HIGH</b> |
|-------------------|------------|---------------|-------------|
| France            | 40.8       | 37.6          | 21.6        |
| Netherlands       | 39.0       | 42.2          | 18.8        |
| Portugal          | 76.6       | 14.4          | 9.0         |
| Sweden            | 24.6       | 46.2          | 29.2        |
| UK                | 20.4       | 54.9          | 24.7        |
| Norway*<br>(2002) | 22.5       | 54            | 23.5        |

Source : Employment in Europe, European Commission, 2002

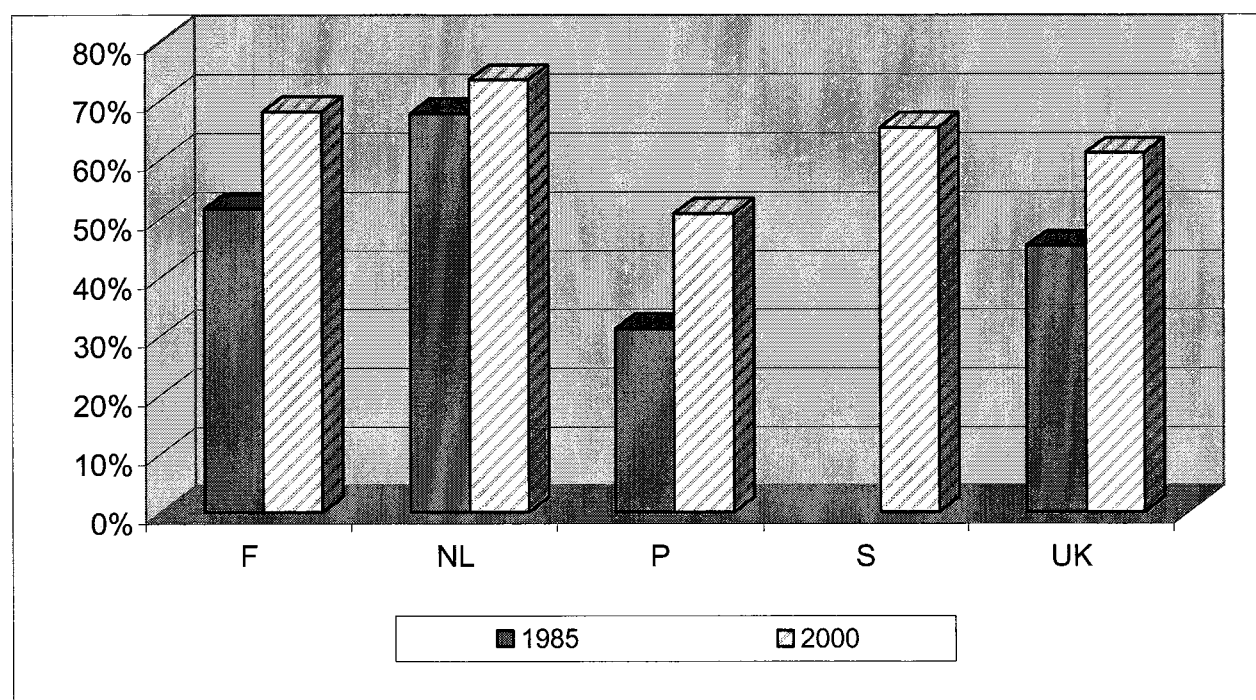
\* Source: Statistics Norway

**FIGURE 5a: Percentage of Young People aged 15-24 in Education/Training: Evolution 1985-2000**

**1. Women**



**2. Men**



Source: Eurostat, European Social Statistics: Labour Force Survey, 2000





## **CHAPTER SIX** Norms and value systems

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## **Women in our countries remain very heterogeneous with regard to their life preferences**

It is well-known that "preferences" and choices are largely shaped by norms and values and influenced by the cultural context in which women live in. The "full-blown career woman" remains a fairly small minority, even in Scandinavian countries. The majority of women want to have children and a substantial proportion remain principally dedicated to motherhood (in particular in the UK and the Netherlands) and, hence, are prone to select educational and employment trajectories that are inherently mother friendly.

As Table 6a shows, there is a strong divide between France and Portugal on the one hand, and Sweden, Netherlands and UK on the other: according to the ISSP survey (in 1998), in the first group, more than 60% of people agree with the following statement "Women need children" and around half that men also need children compared with respectively 7% and 5% in the Netherlands. The proportion of people who think that "children need both parents" is much higher in France and Portugal than in the other countries.

## **Gender ideologies continue to be strong in the Netherlands**

Among people aged 25 to 39 years old, it is in the Netherlands that the highest percentage (17%) agree with the statement "No job as long as the children are below school-age" compared with 8% in Portugal, 12% in Sweden and 9% in UK (Table 6b).

As far as the option "A full-time job and more than one child" is concerned, only 15% in the Netherlands of the people aged 25 to 39 years have selected this option compared with 48% in Slovenia (people aged 30-39), 41% in Portugal, 33% in the UK, 25% in Sweden, 32% in France. Conversely, in the Netherlands, 32% of young people opt for "A part-time job and more than one child" compared with 40% in Sweden (however it should be noticed that in Sweden, part-time job implies much longer working time than in the Netherlands) but only 12% in Portugal.

**TABLE 6a : Norms and Values regarding Gender roles and Family life - % of people who agree with the following statements\***

|  | <b>SWEDEN</b> | <b>NETHER<br/>LANDS</b> | <b>UK</b> | <b>FRANCE</b> | <b>PORTUGAL</b> | <b>NORWAY*<br/>*</b> |
|--|---------------|-------------------------|-----------|---------------|-----------------|----------------------|
| Women need children  | 23            | 7                       | 21        | <b>64</b>     | <b>63</b>       |                      |
| Men need children  | -             | 5                       | 12        | 54            | 47              |                      |
| Children under school-age may suffer if the mother is working outside the home | 36            | 44                      | 47        | 55            | 70              | 36                   |
| Children need both parents   | 56            | 65                      | 67        | 85            | 71              |                      |

\* *Strongly agree and agree*

Source: International Social Science Programme, 1998

\*\* Source for Norwegian data: International Social Science Programme, 1994 (Source: NSD report nr.107)

**TABLE 6b : The "ideal situation" for men, women and people aged 25-39 years old**

"For many Women and an Increasing Number of Men the Question of how to combine Bringing up Children with having a Job outside the Home is an Important Issue in their Lives. From the Following List, and Regardless of your Actual Situation, which one do you consider Ideal for yourself?" (one answer only)

|  | France |        | Netherlands |        | Portugal |        | Sweden |        | United Kingdom |        |      |      |      |      |      |
|--|--------|--------|-------------|--------|----------|--------|--------|--------|----------------|--------|------|------|------|------|------|
|  | Male   | Female | Male        | Female | Male     | Female | Male   | Female | Male           | Female |      |      |      |      |      |
| 1. A full-time job and no children                           | 9,8    | 4,5    | 8,5         | 11     | 5,7      | 11,2   | 3,5    | 2,2    | 3,1            | 5,4    | 4,7  | 6,8  | 21,1 | 10,4 | 15,6 |
| 2. A full-time job and one child                             | 19,3   | 10,2   | 15,5        | 5,4    | 2,2      | 6,3    | 25,7   | 17,4   | 23,9           | 11,4   | 5    | 8,6  | 12,4 | 5,6  | 7,9  |
| 3. A full-time job and more than one child                   | 48,6   | 18,1   | 32          | 26,3   | 3,5      | 15,3   | 45,2   | 28,2   | 41,1           | 44,9   | 11,1 | 24,8 | 47,2 | 9,6  | 32,6 |
| 4. A part-time job and no children                           | 1,7    | 2,1    | 1,4         | 2,1    | 1,7      | 2      | 2,9    | 0,7    | 1,4            | 0,8    | 1,7  | 0,4  | 2,7  | 2,5  | 0,6  |
| 5. A part-time job and one child                             | 2,5    | 9,6    | 8,5         | 4,8    | 9,3      | 8,2    | 3,5    | 10,6   | 7,4            | 4,4    | 7,7  | 5,3  | 2,8  | 6,7  | 5,9  |
| 6. A part-time job and more than one child                   | 7,9    | 28,4   | 22          | 28,6   | 32,8     | 32     | 10,8   | 16     | 12,4           | 18,3   | 41,3 | 39,8 | 4    | 29,8 | 24,1 |
| 7. No job as long as the children are below schoolage        | 2,6    | 15,6   | 8,2         | 15     | 31,9     | 17,1   | 3,6    | 12,7   | 7,8            | 11,9   | 24,4 | 12,2 | 4,6  | 23,8 | 8,7  |
| 8. No job as long as there are children living at home       | 3,1    | 7,9    | 3,2         | 4,5    | 10,4     | 7,2    | 0,2    | 5,1    | 0,9            | 1,3    | 1,1  | 1,3  | 2,3  | 8,2  | 2,4  |
| 9. No job at all even if there are no children (spontaneous) | 0,9    | 0,8    | 0,2         | 0,4    | 0,9      | 0,3    | 0      | 2,4    | 0,7            | 0,2    | 0,3  | 0    | 0,3  | 2,2  | 0    |
| 10. Another situation (spontaneous)                          | 3,6    | 2,9    | 0,7         | 1,9    | 1,7      | 0,4    | 4,5    | 4,8    | 1,4            | 1,4    | 2,8  | 0,8  | 2,6  | 1,2  | 2,2  |
| Don't know   | 0      | 5,5    | 3,5         | 5,5    | 6        | 2,3    | 10,7   | 11,9   | 2,7            | 6      | 4,2  | 2    | 12,1 | 6,7  | 6,5  |

**TABLE 6b : Comparative Table for Slovenia(2001)**

|  | Male | Female | 25- 29 | 30 - 39 |
|--|------|--------|--------|---------|
| A full- time job and no children                       | 5,1  | 2,2    | 2,5    | 3,1     |
| Full time job and one child                            | 11,3 | 5,5    | 6,3    | 6,9     |
| Full time job and more than one child                  | 64,1 | 33,4   | 51,3   | 47,8    |
| Part time job and no children                          | 1,3  | 0,9    | 3,8    | 1,3     |
| Part time job and one child                            | 2,2  | 2,6    | 5,0    | 1,3     |
| Part time job and more than one child                  | 10,0 | 32,1   | 22,5   | 21,1    |
| No job as long as the child (ren) are below school age | 4,4  | 18,2   | 7,5    | 14,8    |
| No job as long as there are children living at home    | 0,5  | 3,6    |        | 2,2     |
| Do not know  | 1,3  | 1,5    | 1,3    | 1,6     |
| N  | 549  | 548    | 80     | 318     |

Source: Table adapted from Čerňič Istenič, 2001: 88 , table 4.22







## **CHAPTER SEVEN** Synthesis

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## **EVOLUTION OVER THE LAST TWO DECADES: SIMILARITIES BETWEEN OUR COUNTRIES**

- **Increase in female education attainment levels**
- **Increase in Mothers' labour force participation rates**
- **Enduring gender asymmetry in family involvement**
- **Development of family-friendly measures (increase in the number of employer-based work - family policies and development of public child care provision)**
- **Polarisation: Strong divide between highly-educated women and low-skilled women**
- **Fertility rates: Below Replacement Levels (except for France and Norway)**

**INTEGRATING FRAMEWORK OF MOTHERS' EMPLOYMENT PATTERNS  
AND  
DIFFERENT WAYS IN WHICH WORKING PARENTS  
COMBINE A JOB AND A FAMILY LIFE**

| Country   | Employment Patterns  | Combining Work and Unpaid Work  |
|---|--|---|
| NORWAY<br>SWEDEN<br>Egalitarian model               | Long part-time or full-time jobs. Short parental leave (one year)                              | Extensive use of Public schemes supporting Working parents (Subsidised child-care arrangements, paid parental leave, flexible working hours...)                                   |
| FRANCE<br>Dual-earner model or the "working mother" | Long part-time or full-time jobs. Long parental leave (3 years) for less qualified or low paid | Extensive use of Public schemes supporting Working parents (Subsidised child-care arrangements, paid parental leave, flexible working hours...)                                   |
| UK<br>NETHERLANDS<br>Modified male breadwinner      | Short part-time jobs (as long as children are under school-age)                                | Reduction of Working time<br><br>Kin/Voluntary/Market for child-care<br><br>Family-friendly Flexibility at the Workplace  |
| PORTUGAL<br>Dual-earner model                       | Full-time jobs. Long working hours for both partners   | Reduction of the number of children<br><br>Kin/Market for child-care  |
| SLOVENIA<br>Dual-earner model                       | Full-time jobs. Long working hours for both partners.  | Family or informal care for children under 3 years. Use of Public schemes supporting Working parents (Subsidised child-care arrangements) and Reduction of the number of children |
| BULGARIA<br>Dual-earner model                       | Full-time jobs for both partners   | Reduction of the number of children, long (2-3 years) parental leave for mothers  |









